DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 168 354 FL 010 208

TITLE	Less Commonly Taught Languages: Resources and Problems.
INSTITUTION	Centre for Information on Language Teaching, London (England).
PUB DATE	Dec 75
NOTE	78p.
AVAILABLE FROM	Centre for Information on Language Teaching and Research, 20 Carlton House Terrace, London SW1Y 5AP, England
EDRS PRICE	MF01/PC04 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS	Bulgarian; Chinese; Class Size; *College Language Programs; Czech; Higher Education; Hindi; Japanese; *Language Attitudes; *Language Instruction; *Language Role; Panjabi; *Second Language Learning; Student Recruitment; Swahili; Teaching Techniques; *Uncommonly Taught Languages
IDENTIFIERS	*United Kingdom

ABSTRACT

This collection of papers from a conference on languages less commonly taught in Britain is concerned with administrative and material problems of teaching these languages. Contents of the publication are: an introduction by G. E. Perren; "Practical Needs" by Anthony Crane; "Problems of Producing Printed Materials" by Rosemary Davidson; "Attracting Students" by J. D. Norton; "Teachers and Students: The Numbers Game" by Joan Maw; "Less Common Languages at Cambridge" by J. L. M. Trim; "The Related Language Approach" by Alan Dobson; "Bulgarian at Leeds" by M. J. de K. Holman; "The Position of Czech" by D. Short; "Hindi, Chinese and Swahili at York" by M. K. Verma; "Teaching Panjabi" by C. Shackle; "Scandinavian Languages at Newcastle upon Tyne" by W. Glyn Jones; "Chinese at Edinburgh" by J. D. Chinnery; and "The Chinese Language Project--A Model?" by R. P. Sloss. Sources of further information and a list of conference participants are appended. (SW)

****
* Reproductions supplied by EDRS are the best that can be made *
* from the original document. *
****

ED168354

CILT Reports and Papers 12

Less commonly taught languages: resources and problems

FL010208

Papers from a conference convened in June, 1975

U S DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION & WELFARE
NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION

THIS DOCUMENT HAS BEEN REPRODUCED EXACTLY AS RECEIVED FROM THE PERSON OR ORGANIZATION ORIGINATING IT. POINTS OF VIEW OR OPINIONS STATED DO NOT NECESSARILY REPRESENT OFFICIAL NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION POSITION OR POLICY

"PERMISSION TO REPRODUCE THIS MATERIAL HAS BEEN GRANTED BY

Barbara Newson

TO THE EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC) AND USERS OF THE ERIC SYSTEM."

December 1975
Centre for Information on Language Teaching and Research

Published by the
Centre for Information on Language Teaching and Research
20 Carlton House Terrace
London SW1Y 5AP

© Centre for Information on Language Teaching and Research
1975

Printed by Hanbury, Tomsett & Co. Ltd.,
Warner House,
Warner Street,
London EC1R 5ES.

ISBN 0 903466 08 2

Contents

			page
1.	Introduction	G E Perren	5
2.	Practical needs	Anthony Crane	14
3.	Problems of producing printed materials	Rosemary Davidson	22
4.	Attracting students	J D Norton	25
5.	Teachers and students : the numbers game	Joan Maw	28
6.	Less common languages at Cambridge	J L M Trim	34
7.	The related language approach	Alan Dobson	40
8.	Bulgarian at Leeds	M J de K Holman	44
9.	The position of Czech	D Short	48
10.	Hindi, Chinese and Swahili at York	M K Verma	51
11.	Teaching Panjabi	C Shackle	54
12.	Scandinavian languages at Newcastle upon Tyne	W Glyn Jones	57
13.	Chinese at Edinburgh	J D Chinnery	59
14.	The Chinese language project — a model?	R P Sloss	61
Appendix 1 : Sources of further information			69
Appendix 2 : Conference participants			70

4

1

G E Perren

Introduction

This collection arose from a specialist conference convened by the Centre for Information on Language Teaching and Research in June 1975 which brought together teachers representative of certain languages less commonly taught in Britain so as to take stock of their problems and resources. Professor L P Harvey (King's College, University of London) and Professor E J A Henderson (School of Oriental and African Studies, University of London) were the conference chairmen on successive days.

For the purpose of this conference, 'less commonly taught languages' were defined as those which are not normally available in the school system, but for which a discernible teaching demand for practical use nevertheless exists and is usually met by institutions of further and higher education. Languages studied principally for their linguistic, historical, philological or literary interest were not included. The meeting was concerned more with administrative and material problems of teaching than with the nature of languages themselves or with linguistic research.

Before the conference, twenty-seven languages[1] within these general criteria had been identified as being taught in Britain and teachers of most of them were present[2]. It should, however, be noted that the following papers have been selected on grounds of their general interest rather than to indicate which languages are deemed to be of most importance in Britain. There is, for example, no paper which deals specifically with the problems of teaching Arabic, while some papers concerned with other languages have had to be omitted because of lack of space.

Since 1947, the status and provision of many of the languages concerned has been conditioned by two major reports, *Scarbrough* in 1947[3] and *Hayter* in

[1] See below, p. 7
[2] See Appendix 2 for list of participants
[3] *Report of the interdepartmental commission of enquiry on Oriental Slavonic, East European and African studies* HMSO, 1947.

1961[4]. Both made far-reaching and detailed proposals for the development of university work to meet the estimated national requirements of the times, notably at the School of Oriental and African Studies and the School of Slavonic and East European Studies of the University of London. These requirements may have changed considerably, and while this is no place to attempt a reassessment of national needs, it is clear that today there are new reasons for teaching some languages while many of the older reasons for teaching others have less force. For example, in 1947 the demands for African languages had been closely linked to the needs of the Colonial Services; by 1961 these had largely disappeared, although 'African studies' related to political, economic and social developments were still well to the fore, and it was noted that 'the growing popularity of studies of the Asian and African members of the Commonwealth has not been matched by any similar enthusiasm for studies of the Middle East or of China, Japan or south-east Asia'[5]. Since 1961 there has again been much change politically and economically, if not academically, to justify the teaching of particular languages, particularly those of the Middle and Far East. The paper by Crane (chapter 2) is interesting in indicating current commercial and mercantile demands for some of these.

As well as the languages[6] covered by the Scarbrough and Hayter reports, the conference was concerned with some less widely taught western European languages such as Dutch, Greek, Portuguese and those of Scandinavia, for which a lively if not widespread demand exists, often based on commercial and cultural interests.

Teaching such languages has been and still is largely based on the universities (and latterly the polytechnics). One dictum of the Hayter report might be recalled in this context: 'the elementary teaching of languages is not a university function and should wherever practicable be removed from universities' courses proper ... It would greatly simplify language training in this country if there was a national institute of languages where language training at all levels could be provided'[7]. Since 1961 technological developments enabling self-instruction may have softened this stricture on the use of university resources. Trim (chapter 6) shows how one major university has come to terms with this problem. Others too have established language centres to teach common as well as uncommon languages with language laboratories and using specialist teaching staff to varying degrees. Universities are larger today than perhaps was foreseen in 1961 and the provision of service courses within a single large university may now justify the establishment of a language centre independent of conventional autonomous departments concerned with single languages or even groups of languages. In the polytechnics the association of language learning with other studies, political, economic or social, in

[4] *Report of the sub-committee on Oriental, Slavonic, East European and African studies* (UGC) HMSO, 1961.
[5] Ibid. p. 36.
[6] Except for Russian.
[7] p. 99.

6

combined courses might justify similar measures if the demand were sufficient. Many technical colleges and other institutions of further education now also provide excellent facilities but it must be asked whether the teaching of many languages is not too widely and perhaps too thinly spread to be as economically or technically effective as possible. In larger cities where there are several institutions with similar needs, communal language centres might be feasible and would have considerable advantages in concentrating resources.

The following tables indicate the provision and dispersal of language teaching as far as ascertainable from questionnaires sent out by CILT in 1975. The figures are by no means as complete as as could be wished : they do not, for example, show relative levels of achievement in the languages concerned — only a specialised enquiry would reveal these. They do, however, give a rough indication of the spread of the teaching of these languages in further and higher education, although not of the numbers of students learning them in particular institutions. The figures for GCE entries (Table 1) may include numbers of immigrant native speakers for whom little or no special teaching is provided in schools.

The 27 languages identified for the purpose of the conference were :
Arabic, Bulgarian, Celtic languages (Gaelic, Irish, Welsh), Czech and Slovak, Chinese, Danish, Dutch and Afrikaans, Finnish, Hungarian, North Indian languages (Bengali, Gujarati, Hindi, Panjabi, Urdu), Japanese, Modern Greek, Norwegian, Polish, Portuguese, Serbo-Croat, Turkish, Swahili.

The specially approved GCE languages examinations included in the table below are set by six of the ten GCE examinations boards. The figures given refer to entries by candidates in the UK.

TABLE 1

GCE 'O' and 'A' level entries 1973

	'O' level	'A' level
Modern Arabic	41	1
Bulgarian	0	4
Czech/Slovak	4	18/3
Chinese (Mandarin)	568	175
Danish	12	13
Dutch/Afrikaans	108/208	58/7
Hungarian	4	4
Gujarati	282	0
Hindi	189	32
Modern Greek	623	134
Japanese	9	0
Norwegian	6	10
Polish	523	163
Portuguese	118	13
Panjabi	29	0

TABLE 1 (*continued*)

	'O' level	'A' level
Serbo-Croat	10	20
Swahili	71	16
Swedish	25	15
Turkish	82	45
Urdu	200	78

Figures by permission of the DES and the examination boards concerned, August 1975

TABLE 2

Number of further education institutions offering full-time advanced courses in languages other than French, German, Russian and Spanish.

Language	No. of colleges offering full-time advanced courses	No. of polytechnics offering full-time advanced courses
Western European languages, literatures and area studies other than French, German, Russian and Spanish	12	8
Oriental, African and Asian languages and studies other than Russian	1	3
Central and Eastern European languages and studies other than Russian	0	2

CILT Reports and Papers 12

Less commonly taught languages: resources and problems

Papers from a conference convened in June, 1975

December 1975
Centre for Information on Language Teaching and Research

Contents

			page
1.	Introduction	G E Perren	5
2.	Practical needs	Anthony Crane	14
3.	Problems of producing printed materials	Rosemary Davidson	22
4.	Attracting students	J D Norton	25
5.	Teachers and students : the numbers game	Joan Maw	28
6.	Less common languages at Cambridge	J L M Trim	34
7.	The related language approach	Alan Dobson	40
8.	Bulgarian at Leeds	M J de K Holman	44
9.	The position of Czech	D Short	48
10.	Hindi, Chinese and Swahili at York	M K Verma	51
11.	Teaching Panjabi	C Shackle	54
12.	Scandinavian languages at Newcastle upon Tyne	W Glyn Jones	57
13.	Chinese at Edinburgh	J D Chinnery	59
14.	The Chinese language project — a model?	R P Sloss	61
Appendix 1 : Sources of further information			69
Appendix 2 : Conference participants			70

10

1 G E Perren

Introduction

This collection arose from a specialist conference convened by the Centre for Information on Language Teaching and Research in June 1975 which brought together teachers representative of certain languages less commonly taught in Britain so as to take stock of their problems and resources. Professor L P Harvey (King's College, University of London) and Professor E J A Henderson (School of Oriental and African Studies, University of London) were the conference chairmen on successive days.

For the purpose of this conference, 'less commonly taught languages' were defined as those which are not normally available in the school system, but for which a discernible teaching demand for practical use nevertheless exists and is usually met by institutions of further and higher education. Languages studied principally for their linguistic, historical, philological or literary interest were not included. The meeting was concerned more with administrative and material problems of teaching than with the nature of languages themselves or with linguistic research.

Before the conference, twenty-seven languages[1] within these general criteria had been identified as being taught in Britain and teachers of most of them were present[2]. It should, however, be noted that the following papers have been selected on grounds of their general interest rather than to indicate which languages are deemed to be of most importance in Britain. There is, for example, no paper which deals specifically with the problems of teaching Arabic, while some papers concerned with other languages have had to be omitted because of lack of space.

Since 1947, the status and provision of many of the languages concerned has been conditioned by two major reports, *Scarbrough* in 1947[3] and *Hayter* in

[1] See below, p. 7
[2] See Appendix 2 for list of participants
[3] *Report of the interdepartmental commission of enquiry on Oriental Slavonic, East European and African studies* HMSO, 1947.

1961[4]. Both made far-reaching and detailed proposals for the development of university work to meet the estimated national requirements of the times, notably at the School of Oriental and African Studies and the School of Slavonic and East European Studies of the University of London. These requirements may have changed considerably, and while this is no place to attempt a reassessment of national needs, it is clear that today there are new reasons for teaching some languages while many of the older reasons for teaching others have less force. For example, in 1947 the demands for African languages had been closely linked to the needs of the Colonial Services; by 1961 these had largely disappeared, although 'African studies' related to political, economic and social developments were still well to the fore, and it was noted that 'the growing popularity of studies of the Asian and African members of the Commonwealth has not been matched by any similar enthusiasm for studies of the Middle East or of China, Japan or south-east Asia'[5]. Since 1961 there has again been much change politically and economically, if not academically, to justify the teaching of particular languages, particularly those of the Middle and Far East. The paper by Crane (chapter 2) is interesting in indicating current commercial and mercantile demands for some of these.

As well as the languages[6] covered by the Scarbrough and Hayter reports, the conference was concerned with some less widely taught western European languages such as Dutch, Greek, Portuguese and those of Scandinavia, for which a lively if not widespread demand exists, often based on commercial and cultural interests.

Teaching such languages has been and still is largely based on the universities (and latterly the polytechnics). One dictum of the Hayter report might be recalled in this context: 'the elementary teaching of languages is not a university function and should wherever practicable be removed from universities' courses proper ... It would greatly simplify language training in this country if there was a national institute of languages where language training at all levels could be provided'[7]. Since 1961 technological developments enabling self-instruction may have softened this stricture on the use of university resources. Trim (chapter 6) shows how one major university has come to terms with this problem. Others too have established language centres to teach common as well as uncommon languages with language laboratories and using specialist teaching staff to varying degrees. Universities are larger today than perhaps was foreseen in 1961 and the provision of service courses within a single large university may now justify the establishment of a language centre independent of conventional autonomous departments concerned with single languages or even groups of languages. In the polytechnics the association of language learning with other studies, political, economic or social, in

[4] *Report of the sub-committee on Oriental, Slavonic, East European and African studies* (UGC) HMSO, 1961.
[5] Ibid. p. 36.
[6] Except for Russian.
[7] p. 99.

combined courses might justify similar measures if the demand were sufficient. Many technical colleges and other institutions of further education now also provide excellent facilities but it must be asked whether the teaching of many languages is not too widely and perhaps too thinly spread to be as economically or technically effective as possible. In larger cities where there are several institutions with similar needs, communal language centres might be feasible and would have considerable advantages in concentrating resources.

The following tables indicate the provision and dispersal of language teaching as far as ascertainable from questionnaires sent out by CILT in 1975. The figures are by no means as complete as as could be wished : they do not, for example, show relative levels of achievement in the languages concerned — only a specialised enquiry would reveal these. They do, however, give a rough indication of the spread of the teaching of these languages in further and higher education, although not of the numbers of students learning them in particular institutions. The figures for GCE entries (Table 1) may include numbers of immigrant native speakers for whom little or no special teaching is provided in schools.

The 27 languages identified for the purpose of the conference were :
Arabic, Bulgarian, Celtic languages (Gaelic, Irish, Welsh), Czech and Slovak, Chinese, Danish, Dutch and Afrikaans, Finnish, Hungarian, North Indian languages (Bengali, Gujarati, Hindi, Panjabi, Urdu), Japanese, Modern Greek, Norwegian, Polish, Portuguese, Serbo-Croat, Turkish, Swahili.

The specially approved GCE languages examinations included in the table below are set by six of the ten GCE examinations boards. The figures given refer to entries by candidates in the UK.

TABLE 1

GCE 'O' and 'A' level entries 1973

	'O' level	'A' level
Modern Arabic	41	1
Bulgarian	0	4
Czech/Slovak	4	18/3
Chinese (Mandarin)	568	175
Danish	12	13
Dutch/Afrikaans	108/208	58/7
Hungarian	4	4
Gujarati	282	0
Hindi	189	32
Modern Greek	623	134
Japanese	9	0
Norwegian	6	10
Polish	523	163
Portuguese	118	13
Panjabi	29	0

TABLE 1 (*continued*)

	'O' level	'A' level
Serbo-Croat	10	20
Swahili	71	16
Swedish	25	15
Turkish	82	45
Urdu	200	78

Figures by permission of the DES and the examination boards concerned, August 1975

TABLE 2

Number of further education institutions offering full-time advanced courses in languages other than French, German, Russian and Spanish.

Language	No. of colleges offering full-time advanced courses	No. of polytechnics offering full-time advanced courses
Western European languages, literatures and area studies other than French, German, Russian and Spanish	12	8
Oriental, African and Asian languages and studies other than Russian	1	3
Central and Eastern European languages and studies other than Russian	0	2

TABLE 3

Numbers of students on courses in languages other than French, German, Russian and Spanish leading to recognised qualifications at grant-aided further education establishments (including polytechnics and colleges) in England and Wales as at November 1973.

Language, literature and area studies	CNAA first degree courses	All other advanced courses	All non-advanced courses	Total all advanced and non-advanced courses
Western European languages, literature and area studies other than French, German, Russian and Spanish	178 (Dutch 20) (Italian 138) (Portuguese 20)	278 (Danish 5) (Norwegian 26) (Dutch 76) (Portuguese 25) (Mod. Greek 81) (Swedish 65)	553	1009
Central and Eastern European languages and studies other than Russian	0	11 (Polish)	81	92
Oriental, African and Asian languages and studies other than Russian	37 (Arabic 21) (Chinese 16)	156 (Arabic 123) (Chinese 26) (Japanese 7)	133	326
All languages, literatures and area studies other than French, German, Russian and Spanish	215	445	767	1427

Figures by permission of the Heads of modern languages at the institutions concerned for CNAA first degrees and the Department of Education and Science, August 1975.

1. The term *advanced courses* includes full-time, sandwich, part-time day and evening courses leading to CNAA postgraduate diplomas and certificates, Institute of Linguists Intermediate and Membership examinations and Northern Counties Technical Examinations Council Norwegian examinations.
2. The term *non-advanced* courses includes courses leading to Royal Society of Arts and London Chamber of Commerce and Industry examinations.

TABLE 4

Number of students on University courses in languages other than French, German, Russian and Spanish in the United Kingdom 31st December, 1973.

Language	No. of universities	No. of courses	No. of undergraduates	No. of postgraduates
Western European languages and studies other than French, German, Russian and Spanish	27	101	1937	85
Slavonic and Eastern European languages and studies other than Russian	15	49	42	34
Oriental African and Asian languages and studies other than Russian	16	70	388	282
Welsh and Celtic languages and studies	13	19	241	13
Chinese language and studies	8	14	123	13

Figures by perrission of the UGC, August 1975

A comparatively recent development deserves special consideration; that is the rapid increase, because of immigration, in the numbers of native speakers of many languages within Britain itself. No reliable statistics are available of the numbers of Panjabi, Gujarati and Hindi speakers in our midst, nor of those who have Greek, Turkish or Cantonese as their mother tongues[8]. We know however that they form part of the permanent population, and provide not only largely untapped resources for learning, but a virtually unexplored and undefined demand for teaching these languages, often in schools but also in further education. A lively demand for language maintenance certainly exists[9], if not yet for the use of such languages as media in education. The imperial responsibilities which remained in 1947 may well have been replaced by the domestic needs of 1975. But as yet there is little indication that these are being seriously studied in spite of much ostensible recognition given to the notions of multicultural and multiracial education. 'Immigrant' languages are still virtually ignored in schools except in so far as they get in the way of better English learning. Language maintenance is usually left to the immigrant communities to organize for themselves outside the public educational system[10].

From the following papers it will be seen that in spite of the diversity of the languages represented, and in spite of the varied reasons for teaching them, certain administrative, organisational and resource problems are of common concern.

Within particular institutions, small departments or sub-departments, having perhaps only one teacher and few students, can suffer a sense of isolation and even a preoccupation with survival, both psychologically and materially, quite apart from having difficulties in constructing teaching materials which remain consistently valid, and then of getting these published or effectively reproduced. In times of financial stringency the vulnerability of scattered resources becomes more apparent. Such problems are described by Maw and Norton (chapters 5 and 4).

A special problem with many languages is that of securing adequate regular contact with the language community by teachers as well as students. While it is easy enough for students to spend periods in most Western European countries, periods of study in Eastern Europe are less easy to organize, and India, Pakistan, China and Japan all present special problems, if only of geographical distance and consequent expense in travelling. But because of this, regular contact may be all the more important.

[8] Difficult as these may be to obtain and present in a reliable form, they seem essential for educational planning and of considerable importance for other social services. At present even reliable guesses are lacking.

[9] See for example *A language for life* HMSO, 1975. pp. 293-294 where the issue of bilingualism in British education is recognized, if not pursued.

[10] Many part-time 'mother tongue' schools and classes exist, varying greatly in quality and size; no national estimates of the large numbers of adults and school-age children attending them are available. In one northern city such independent instruction takes place in no less than ten different languages.

The teaching of some languages may benefit from their linguistic association with others. Polish or Bulgarian may thus derive support from the greater status and established resources of Russian; or Portuguese may gain support from departments of Spanish. (See Dobson and Holman chapters 7 and 8). Languages of greater obvious world importance, such as Chinese and Japanese may, because of special difficulties in their initial teaching, require specialized resources at the elementary stages, additional or alternative to those available in well established academic departments (see Sloss chapter 14).

An association with more general linguistic studies may also provide support as in the University of York for courses in Chinese, Hindi and Swahili (chapter 10).

One characteristic emerged clearly from the conference discussions: the need for a greater sharing of information between scattered teachers and departments. This seems particularly important when considering the provision of teaching materials[11]. Clearly it is not economically feasible for a wide variety of course materials in many languages, which could effectively cater for the needs of many different students, to be published. The sales would be too small. Not only should teaching expertise be shared, but adaptations which have been made of basic materials to suit different conditions and students should be more widely known, perhaps internationally as well as nationally. Materials must be based on accurate evaluation of the precise needs of individual learners to be fully effective and to make the best use of the strong motivation which is often present. The less commonly learned a language is, the more individual the student's needs may be.

Whether materials can be used internationally depends on how effectively they can be adapted not only to students' vocational needs, but to their own national educational, cultural and linguistic background. Adaptations of this kind are likely to be best made by teachers who use rather than by scholars who assemble materials. In languages such as English, French or German, effective internationally usable courses are sometimes produced in the metropolitan countries, since the demand is sufficient to justify the necessary resources being employed. But for the less commonly taught languages the potential sales are far less and the resources may not be available. Courses produced in 'third' countries may sometimes be usable but the adaptation needed is likely to be very extensive.

A conference of this kind, which brought together for the first time many who had not met before and who were not necessarily previously aware of any community of interest, could do little to propose solutions to problems which it had scarcely identified. Nor could it be expected to make considered recommendations without much more detailed work. It may, however, have indicated the need for further studies on the provision of less commonly taught languages in an increasingly cost-conscious system where demand, although limited, is nevertheless very important to satisfy for practical as well as academic purposes. In

[11] Some existing sources of information are comparatively unexplored. See Appendix 1.

1947 the Scarbrough report was much concerned with what it termed, 'the building up of an academic tradition' [12] to support particular languages in the universities. Fourteen years later progress was reviewed in the Hayter report. It may well be time for another and wider review which would cover not only the universities, but other institutions without quite the same traditions, so as to make better uses of the resources which are rationally available.

The flexibility of polytechnics and technical colleges in providing courses in response to short-term demands is well-known. Such readiness, however, presupposes an adequate supply of teachers and materials. While native speakers who can be valuable teachers are often available at short notice in large towns, they need the support of materials which take time and the resources of established departments to produce.

[12] Chapter IV pp. 28-46

2 Anthony Crane

Practical needs

There is no single reliable source of information on how language problems are dealt with by those who must be practically concerned mainly with other matters.

I have been associated with more than one inevitably inconclusive enquiry carried out for the CBI. Recently there has been the interesting experiment in information collection by the University of York which certainly did not produce the encouragement to linguists which some had looked for, nor perhaps because of the considerable difficulties of definition and communication, very firm indications of an overall position[1].

Recently, I have been in contact with about 100 companies, chambers of commerce, trade associations, professional institutions and government departments, on the specific subject of uncommon languages. The selection has been arbitrary though not haphazard, but the general and even detailed attitudes presented show consistent tendencies in no way startling to someone working in this field.

'English is the only world language'

Three-quarters of the world's population have as their first (and most frequently, only) language, one of barely more than a dozen; of these, half a dozen (including English) are 'commonly taught' in this country. Of the others, Hindi, Urdu, Bengali and Malay are of lesser general interest. We are left then, of the major languages, with Japanese, Chinese, Portuguese and Arabic. The remainder which we may have cause to consider will be the minor Western and Eastern European languages, together with Turkish, Farsi, Swahili and Hausa.

The unique claim of English to the title of world language is that it is the most generally known and used in its combined role of native (10% of world population) and second or subsidiary language.

[1] Emmans K, Eric Hawkins and Adam Westoby, *Foreign languages in industry and commerce*, LTC, University of York, 1974

If English is not considered unique then it may be challenged only by Chinese, which has more than twice as many native users, though in fact less if we are looking for mutual comprehension of the spoken word. Chinese is as yet technologically unimportant, but it does provide a *lingua franca* — or more properly, two — in Mandarin (or the national language) and Cantonese.

Japanese by contrast is unimportant as a second language, but highly important as a language of science, technology and innovation. Arabic provides a transnational *lingua franca;* although technologically insignificant, it is at present very important economically. Portuguese depends for its future predominantly on the progress and orientation of Brazil.

If there is any factor common to all the languages under discussion, it is the acceptance by their native users that they would not be understood in the English-speaking world in their own language.

Users of languages may be considered to operate within the following two broad sub-divisions although individuals may straddle the boundary:

Professional: teaching, translation (into and out of English); interpreting; abstracting; librarianship; typing and shorthand.

Ancillary: speaking (negotiation, selling, representation);
reading (keeping informed);
writing (very little; mainly messages).

Trade and industry

It is not so many years ago that Lord Stokes was able to say that if your product was good enough, buyers would be perfectly prepared to read about it in English. No foreign language knowledge is required in industry except where the processes of production, selling, buying and management involve people who do not communicate in English; the existence of other languages is a nuisance and a potential expense. The following comment is representative:

'The business world, whilst accepting the desirability, if not the need, to be able to conduct business in the major European languages, assumes maybe wrongly, that for other countries it is perfectly acceptable to operate in English'.

For those who do business abroad, the main requirement is for 'travel French' or whatever is the language concerned. Typically, a businessman's visit to a country will involve getting from the airport to the international hotel he has been booked into, and making contact with his agent if he was not met by him at the airport; this will be followed by a round of calls on potential customers in the company of the agent who acts as or provides an interpreter, should the customer be unable or reluctant to speak English.

Just as it is possible to spend a fortnight in another country's sun and sea and remain wholly insulated from its language, the package tour exists with much the same effect for businessmen. A government-sponsored exhibition or week is arranged in Japan, interpreters are available and direct contact is limited to those Japanese able and willing to speak English.

Almost any attempt the English visitor makes at the language will be appreciated, and if he can converse even to a limited extent, he will increase his opportunities for making effective contact. But, as important, and a factor without which the ability to converse is largely wasted, is the understanding of the accepted conventions and attitudes of the social and business life of the country. Although these are closely bound to and interact with languages, and knowledge of them is normally acquired through mastery of the language, it can be obtained vicariously without this mastery. We should consider the desirability of studying systematically these sociological aspects as an alternative to their random acquisition through years of work on the less accessible languages.

Translation into foreign languages

There is a very considerable and widely accepted requirement for the translation into the foreign language of practically all the material available to the English-speaking customer. Sales literature, technical data sheets, specifications, user handbooks, operating and maintenance manuals and tenders may all have to be translated, even into minor languages such as Polish, Hungarian and Farsi.

Translations are obtained through translation organisations with international connections in this country, through agents or through associated companies abroad, and we are not directly concerned here with providing for this important aspect of foreign language usage, as such translations must be made by people working into their own native language. But at least the critical competence of English linguists should keep pace with those languages whose use is growing.

Information, translation and abstraction

In the major companies and in much of science and technology-based industry, keeping abreast of published developments in other countries is important. Apart from personal reading there is a need for systematized approaches short of cover-to-cover translation of scientific journals. Abstracting by subject experts as a preliminary or alternative to full translation has become established practice for the more familiar languages. Very short highly directed courses at Sheffield have already produced abstractors working from Japanese in several of our largest companies. The success of this method, which involves a narrower knowledge of the language than has usually been associated with French, German and Russian, will be watched with interest.

Correspondence

Most business correspondence with non-English speaking countries is conducted in English. Routine business letters or telex messages which are hardly more than proformas may be sent in e.g. French, German, Spanish under the supervision of linguists of modest competence who have learnt these as foreign languages. The extent to which this is done in Japanese, Arabic or Farsi, is limited in the extreme and the value of putting oneself in the position of being

able to do this is dubious. A much more common practice for serious negotiations is to write in English, but to be ready to receive replies in the other language. Where detailed technical matter is involved, it is usually found better to write a letter in English covering appropriate descriptive material or specifications properly translated to meet general requirements and not hastily for the specific correspondence.

Interpreting

Interpreting is often an afterthought. Someone who 'speaks French' will show French (and possibly other foreign) visitors round the plant. If something more sophisticated and technical is required a staff translator — if he exists — will be called in. The Japanese will 'bring their own interpreter', 'Arabs and Iranians speak English'. When you go abroad 'interpreters will be provided'. Interpreters tend to be taken for granted in this way and of course are expected to be foreigners — the idea of an Englishman acting as a professional interpreter is to much of industry surprising, if not bizarre — certainly in the less familiar languages.

Ancillary

These uses cover a wide range from 'travel French' to letters written in or translated into a foreign language by the so-called bilingual secretary; sales negotiation and technical service; exchanges between specialists at international meetings; and communication with construction, shop floor, or operating staff and workers during plant erection and machinery installation.

So far as reading skill is concerned, a very important consideration is the requirement for the many kinds of specialist to keep up with the publications of non-English writers in their own field.

I have referred to some typical and representative situations in which the business user of foreign languages may seem to play an ignoble part. Exceptions are, however, all around us, and we may conclude that it would be well for this country if the flexibility of our foreign language education system provided a background giving greater opportunities for these exceptions to occur.

Government

Requirements are, as might be expected, more specialized and are in general unsurprising. It is perhaps worth noting the acceptance of modest language attainments — measured by Civil Service Commission examinations and rewarded by allowances — as ultimate goals for certain employments, e.g. immigration officers. This may be contrasted with the 'stepping stones' approach of academic examination levels.

The Diplomatic Service is of course in a class of its own, and always provides for the learning of languages to high levels of attainment in the countries concerned. The examinations for language allowances cover some 50 uncommon languages. There are also requirements for interpreters in the Navy, Army and Air Force.

The Home Office has special requirements for Immigration Officers and Alien

Registration Staff, covering fifteen or so of our languages. The Department of Employment has somewhat similar requirements.

The above comprise the main needs for spoken use of the languages, but a number of other departments have to deal with documents in uncommon languages mainly in connection with information on foreign laws and regulations affecting international co-operation.

International contacts with Departments of the Home Civil Service such as Education, Science, Agriculture and the Environment are growing on specialist subjects, as e.g. pollution and road safety. Uncommon language requirement will usually be limited to translation from these languages but requirements also arise for translation into them to provide notices for long distance lorry drivers, and of course for immigrants.

The Defence requirement should also be mentioned, and specifically the need to consider the language implications of international collaboration in operating (and exporting) military equipment and weapon systems. Perhaps one should mention here that English is the accepted world language for Air Traffic Control, though noting the interesting bilingual approach to space vehicle navigation.

Conclusions

From the point of view of practical needs, there is little requirement for 'unusual' languages, and it is very unlikely indeed that it will ever be large enough to justify their introduction into lower levels of education. What we must be on the alert for is the moment when the unusual language begins to be promoted into a different class. If we consider that the major languages of world trade at present equate with the more commonly taught languages, viz. French, German, Italian, Russian, Spanish, we are already out of date.

Japanese as the language of the second largest trading country in the world is already a major language of industry, trade and innovation. Registrations at the Japanese Patent Office are of greater interest in this country than those of anywhere else in the world except the United States and possibly Germany. There is no doubt that there is a requirement for Japanese to become a somewhat more commonly taught language, to say the very least.

The next candidate for promotion is Arabic. So far as requirements for translation are covered it is already in certain subject areas level-pegging with Spanish as a requirement.

Chinese is the great imponderable. The further industrial development of China will undoubtedly produce significant quantities of technical and scientific literature which will have to be made available in Britain and the English speaking world, and hoped-for increases in reciprocal trading will bring the accompanying demands for a greater active use of the language and for translations into it. It may well be misleading to assume that China will duplicate the closed cultural attitudes of the Soviet Union.

Affecting the requirements for teaching all these languages will be our estimation of the effectiveness and acceptability of English in our governmental, industrial and trade relations in the countries where they are used. The three languages mentioned present different problems in this respect.

Japan has become a major power within the American technical ambit and on the basis of new technology described in English. English is in many ways a more convenient and useful language than Japanese for many practical purposes, but it cannot be supposed that a nation of over 100 million people with a proud and significant written tradition will go the way that might be thought appropriate, for example, for Norway. There is an additional consideration of self-interest of this country and indeed of the United States; however fully English might become accepted as the second language of Japan, performance will always lag behind intention. A familiar feature of Japanese behaviour to all those who are accustomed to contacts in Japan is the acceptance of documents in English, a reluctance to require translations into Japanese, but often a very incomplete comprehension of what the English document contains.

The Japanese may now be willing to do all the communicating with us in English, but this communication will be what is considered necessary to serve their own purpose of representation, selling, buying and obtaining information. It is in the highest degree misleading to suppose that they will always consider it necessary in the interests of reciprocity to make available, in English, information which may be essential to our exporters. The Japanese language can be used as a legal substitute for tariff barriers. Even if not deliberately so used, or if commercial advantage is seen in making the information available (Japanese vehicle emission regulations for pollution control are relevant) there is no obligation on Japan to publish its patents in English, nor indeed for Arabic-speaking countries to publish regulations for conditions of employment in English for the benefit of British contractors (though some do).

As Japanese becomes the vehicle for the publication of an increasing proportion of the literature of technical innovation, and as Arab countries and Iran become increasingly dominant as sources of finance, the relative importance of their understanding us (and by us I mean all the English or American speaking countries) and our understanding them changes significantly. We must acknowledge that in some respects the Japanese, Arabs and the Iranians have invented better mouse-traps. Perhaps the Chinese can also catch mice.

We may assume without question that the hegemony of English is unlikely to be accepted in China for a combination of reasons: hence any expectations of contacts with the Chinese must be founded on greatly increased facilities for learning and using their language. The question here is how far and how fast the liberalization of cultural and commercial exchange will go, and the extent to which political attitudes will have the same unhappy results as those affecting our use of Russian.

Arabic is in a different position. It may properly be regarded as a world language, in some respects almost comparable in significance though, for very

different reasons, with Japanese. It is not, however, in the same way a medium for the communication of scientific and technical invention, neither has it, despite Egyptian and Syrian aspirations, a single national focus; and of course, it cannot compare in terms of number of speakers with a single major dialect of Chinese. The extent to which Arabic needs to be used by an increasing number of people in this country depends very much on the developing attitudes of the Arab-speaking countries. English (increasingly in preference to French) is gaining considerable acceptance for practical purposes. Arab trading and publishing organisations, for example the Petrol Exporters' Organisation, OPEC, use English as their official language.

Government regulations and even commercial contracts are often made available in English translation in spite of the chauvinistic attitudes of, for example, Libya. The economic requirements for Arabic in this country will depend on how far this process goes, but there is no doubt that for two of the purposes mentioned above, viz. selling, particularly at the generalised public relations end of the activity, and personal relationships with colleagues and workers at plant level, there will be a rapidly increasing requirement for the training of effective users of Arabic.

As well as looking at the languages we are considering for their overall importance, we must also include those which have particular relevance for geographical or political reasons. Geography for our purpose has been more or less abolished by air travel — one of the factors which has reduced the importance of French but historically it has influenced the continuing inclusion of Dutch among languages of significant minority interest. The fact that we share ownership of two of our very largest companies with the Netherlands is a factor, as well as its position as a founder language of the EEC.

Of those groupings to which we belong, it is in the EEC only that the pre-eminence of English is challenged and where political considerations seriously affect our linguistic requirements. For the reason we must bear in mind Greek as the language of a future Community member, and possibly also Turkish.

The continuing importance of the languages of the Indian sub-continent in relation to immigrants comes under this political and historical heading as does our special position regarding Chinese.

We must also maintain provision for minor languages which can suddenly rise to prominence through major exhibitions and trade agreements, a notable example at the present time being Farsi. When such requirements arise, resources in this country are overloaded, nearly always to the extent of producing inadequate achievement. Although the requirement for Farsi is bigger and likely to be more enduringly important than that for, say Romanian, we must not forget that all the money in the world cannot rapidly extend the number of Farsi speakers, readers and writers beyond the present twenty million or so.

The small but continuing requirement for Eastern European languages must

be included as well as for the Scandinavian languages. Present resources for learning some of these languages are very restricted.

My general answer, then, to the question of the requirements for less commonly taught languages is to some extent a circular one. Less common languages will always be less commonly taught, and only a limited number of people and situations will suffer because of this. As time passes and the requirement for certain other languages increases, they will and must be more commonly taught. We can see now that we are almost certainly lagging behind in respect of the three languages I have dwelt on — Japanese, Chinese and Arabic — we must be ready for the next language likely to move into the big time. Should we already begin to look as far as Swahili or Hausa?

3

Rosemary Davidson

Problems of producing printed materials

Educational publishers who publish for a global market are already widely engaged in producing printed material in 'the less commonly taught languages'. From reading primers to maths courses, from Nigerian history to Malayan geography: a large quantity of 'regular' educational titles are published annually in 30-40 of the principal African and Oriental languages and Arabic, by the handful of British publishers who operate on a world-wide basis. So experience of producing printed material in non-Latin scripts is already considerable.

But our concern here is the teaching of such languages as foreign languages, and the provision of material for this purpose. The problems are economic and technical, and these are interconnected.

Economic problems

The books in such languages are required in only small numbers. Normally print runs would be 2,000 or less, to be sold out in two or three years. At present the position is aggravated by inflation. In the last two years, the cost of materials has risen by over 100%, the cost of labour by about 70%. To meet their cash flow requirements, publishers are tending to reduce their print runs, which in turn pushes up the unit costs and therefore the prices of books. Thus the cost of books in the less commonly taught languages is likely to rise steeply — to a point where the limited market might grow even smaller and render it uneconomic to publish at all. This is a very serious problem for all books with limited markets.

As a result of these economic pressures such materials are increasingly likely to be produced, if at all, on an international basis, so that initiation costs can be shared between e.g. an American and a British publisher. This means that the finer points of local preferences for method and presentation will have to be ignored — which matters a good deal less at the post-school level we are most probably referring to than at school level.

Another economic factor which affects the production of such materials is the

amount of government-sponsored study. The receipt by, for instance an American university, of a large Federal grant for financing the study of say Korean or Cambodian and official encouragement for the turning out of people trained in these languages naturally affects the markets for materials in these languages. Such grants are dependent on political decisions and so long-term planning in this area is particularly difficult in times of economic stringency and is often subject to the vagaries of international politics.

Technical problems

In Britain there are a number of specialist printers able to set type in all the Continental and principal Oriental languages. They are prepared either to print the books themselves or make film of the type available for printing elsewhere. Costs are 25% to 35% higher than in centres where these languages are indigenous. In recent years British publishers have had many books printed overseas, mainly in English, but sometimes in local languages, in Chinese, Japanese, Malay, Arabic, and principal Indian and African languages.

There is no difficulty in obtaining setting capacity in Britain for all African languages. The Monotype Corporation pioneered facilities for this first in hot metal and now in film, and a full range of accents and special characters are available. For Arabic setting the University Presses of Oxford and Cambridge, Aurora Press, Interlingua, and Stephen Austin are the most experienced. For works of scholarship the University Presses of Oxford and Cambridge, and William Clowes, figure mostly. (OUP can set among others : Greek, Malayan, Cyrillic, Samaritan, 'Japanese typewriter', Bengali, Burmese, Hebrew, Tamil, and Sinhalese).

Resources overseas can be employed. Facilities for Arabic type-setting are plentiful and good in Beirut and for Chinese in Hong Kong and Singapore. Although type-setting costs are lower than in Britain, the difference between the actual cost of printing in these centres and in Britain is getting smaller and the cost of paper is an international rather than a local question.

Methods

For the African languages film-setting facilities are available; and for Arabic there is no particular problem. Chinese and Japanese are peculiar because of the vast number of characters required and for this reason typesetting techniques are simpler and more time-consuming. There is heavy reliance on operator skill. Techniques are certainly much less efficient than the keyboard/high speed film setting facilities developed for European and African languages.

A less exacting method is to provide a set of characters in the language concerned, which can be photographed and produced as type from a 'golf ball', i.e. a hard plastic ball used to provide characters on an IBM composing machine. There is a Japanese equivalent, but again the small number of characters the typewriter head can hold make it a poor substitute for other

methods. Origination by calligraphy (then transferred to film) can be good but the results tend to be difficult to read, as calligraphers have slightly individual styles, and it is not cheaper.

Proof reading and editing

Reading facilities in Britain are one of the continuing problem areas, and this is where the University Presses and other specialist firms score. This kind of problem can slow down production.

There are very few people in British publishing firms with a personal knowledge of the less commonly taught languages, and so the general participation and tidying up that goes on normally is hardly possible. It also means that for proof-reading the publisher has to rely completely on his printer.

4

J D Norton

Attracting students

When student numbers are under discussion, teachers of the less commonly taught languages may feel their predicament bears certain similarities to that of the disappointed hosts of the Gospel parables. Everything has been made ready for a great feast, but the intended guests spurn the occasion. In the parable some of the guests took the host's servants, 'entreated them spitefully and slew them'. While language teachers who fail to attract sufficient students may not fear quite such dire consequences, there are some who nevertheless feel particularly vulnerable in times of financial stringency.

How can the vacant places at our 'great feast' be filled? In the parable the host sourly concluded that 'they which were bidden were not worthy'. Apparently it did not occur to him that what he had on offer was not sufficiently attractive. He therefore had to send out 'into the highways and hedges' and get his servants to drag in 'as many as they found, both bad and good .... poor, maimed, halt and blind' — the equivalent perhaps of debasing entry requirements to two 'E' grades at 'A' level. Such solutions, however, are likely to make the feast still less attractive to students of the calibre we are seeking. Good students would rightly be suspicious, not to say contemptuous, of low entry requirements. Nevertheless, there may be a case for changing entry requirements without lowering them. A general requirement, such as three 'A' level passes with minimum grades BBC, rather than an insistence on passes at a particular level in specified subjects may be sufficient to ensure that students could cope with the course. A too-specific set of entry requirements has the effect of slamming the door in the face of good potential students.

Whatever the entry requirements, the places will remain vacant if the course itself is unattractive, so we should consider what attracts a student to a particular course at a particular university. At once we are struck with the variety of answers to this question. Some students will actually choose a university first and then look around for a subject to read; some may opt for dreaming spires, while others prefer red brick or tower blocks. Some students seek simply the general qualification bestowed by a degree and would find, say,

History, Classics, Arabic or Serbo-Croat equally congenial. Others have clear ideas about their future careers and want a course that will give them specific qualifications. Among students seeking courses in a particular language there are those who wish to concentrate on, say, medieval literature while others prefer the modern period. Different styles of teaching and the availability of such aids as language laboratories will also influence some decisions. In short, the motivations, aims, likes and dislikes of potential students are remarkably diverse. If we wish to attract good students towards the less commonly taught languages we must recognise this diversity.

We can cater more satisfactorily for diverse tastes if we aim to attract students to the study of the language itself rather than to a particular university course. Once we recognise the diverse tastes of students we also recognise that no single course can be devised that will suit all. We can avoid cut-throat competition for students and reduce wasteful duplication of effort if we go in for a limited amount of specialization — one university putting its main emphasis on the modern language, another on medieval literature, and so on. However, I believe it would be a mistake to allow ourselves to be cajoled by the economy experts into establishing single centres for the basic instruction in the particular languages of our concern. In the first place I believe that many of the economies would prove illusory, in the second, since such a move would ignore the diversity of students' tastes, it would reduce the total number of students attracted to our languages. Moreover, if that one centre proved to be a flop the result would be a catastrophe; if one school in six is below standard the consequences are not so serious.

Just as the variety of courses between universities should attract more students, so should flexibility of courses within universities. Students expressing a desire to read subjects as unusual as ours are often unusual people with unusual combinations of interests and abilities. If the course structure is rigid and there are obligatory papers in specified *subsidiary* subjects that the student dislikes he may decide against the course altogether. There is a hard core of language, literature and background study that must be compulsory, but the wider the choice of subsidiary subjects the better the chance of attracting good students. In this connection I consider that contrasting studies can often be as valuable as complementary studies to the overall intellectual development of the student. It is often particularly valuable for students of our languages, who are used to very small classes, to try out their wings in a large department by taking a subsidiary course in, say, politics, economics or even one of the natural sciences. Students who succeed in this way gain in self-confidence and sometimes, by careful selection of subsidiaries, can take courses that will be of particular value in their intended careers.

Such flexibility, however, cannot be achieved if we confuse what may be desirable with what is essential and, by adding to the number of compulsory papers, reduce the possibility of choice. On these grounds I would resist any proposal to make the study of, say, linguistics an obligatory part of our language courses, though where possible it should be available as an option

for students who wish to take it. Although some teachers will argue in favour of a complete, self-contained course to be offered to students on a take-it-or-leave-it basis, the fact remains that if students do not consider the course will meet their particular needs they will not take it.

High standards are essential on the actual courses as well as in the entry requirements. Satisfactory courses in our languages can never be soft options, and only students who are prepared to work hard can succeed. However, the type of student we wish to encourage would find no satisfaction in a course that demanded less than he was capable of. So once we have designed courses that are attractive to good students we still have to ensure that by effective teaching we continue to hold their interest and give them the satisfaction that comes from genuine achievement. If the students on our courses are contented and successful we may confidently expect the number of applicants to grow; the converse is also true.

To sum up, if we wish to attract suitable undergraduates towards the study of the less commonly taught languages, we should remove obstacles to entry, encourage a variety of courses between universities and flexible courses within universities. We should set high standards and see that the courses are effectively taught.

5

Joan Maw

Teachers and students: the numbers game

There are many problems, both practical and psychological, arising from the fact that in teaching or learning the less commonly taught languages, classes are generally small and teachers few. Some of these problems are common to both teachers and taught; others affect mainly one side or the other. But by the very intimacy of the group involved in the process, a problem which might seem *prima facie* to affect only one of the protagonists in fact has its influence on the rest, who therefore cannot afford to ignore it completely. There is often something of a hothouse atmosphere, in which problems and difficulties may, if unchecked, grow apace. Colleagues in other subjects sometimes envy us our staff-student ratio, but the grass always seems greener on the other side of the fence, and our problems, though different, are every bit as real and difficult as theirs.

To start with, this very envy makes us uneasy; especially when it is coupled with threatening gestures and disparaging remarks about waste of resources. In spite of ourselves, we tend to be on the defensive; and at the same time perhaps to accept students whom other people have rejected, simply in order to increase actual numbers; and thereby we often increase our problems, since weak or disturbed students need more attention and cause more day to day disruption in small classes than in large groups where they are vastly outnumbered. Similarly, at the end of the course, if one student fails it might be 50% of your finalists; whereas last year, when we had the first 1st class result in Swahili in 10 years, nobody but us seemed to think anything of it, though we were simply delighted!

In spite of small classes, the teacher may in fact bear a heavy burden. It is not only that courses with two students per year require as many contact hours as those with twenty or 200. The teacher may well have to do more administration (interviewing applicants, organising timetables, courses and examinations; sitting on committees and boards of studies) than his colleagues in a large department where such jobs are shared out or rotate. Similarly he may have to do a lot of his own clerical work because secretarial assistance is begrudged

or because 'his' language is too difficult for the ordinary typist to cope with. At the same time he may be conscious of the need (as well as his own desire) to do basic research work in his subject, since if he himself is not contributing to its advancement, there may be very few others to do so. Furthermore, as one of the few scholars in his subject, he is not only likely to be consulted on many matters some of which are only partially within his competence, but he is also liable to be pestered by cranks and peripatetic idealists with a yen for Buddhism or Afro-Asian studies and no serious qualifications whatever.

Indeed, the sensation of being a big frog in a little pond is not always pleasant. It is not only the feeling that the pond might dry up (especially in the present economic climate) but also the fact that there are not many other ponds to go to. Thus the teacher who is not happy in his present post, for whatever reason, has little prospect of moving elsewhere. Not only are sideways movements restricted, but also upwards movements in promotion, and these restrictions can lead to frustration and apathy, or even bitterness in some cases. More serious is the effect of academic isolation. When there are few stimulating colleagues to discuss academic problems with, the individual may give up research entirely for lack of informed appreciation, or may develop such peculiar biases as to vitiate his work. At the same time, his possibilities of keeping contact with his geographical area of study — which might be a balancing as well as a stimulating experience — are lessened by the indispensability of his multifarious activities. It is not just that nobody else is willing to take over his classes for a time, it may be that nobody else is able or even that nobody else exists at all.

Coming to class with these background problems and frustrations, the teacher finds further difficulties. In the first place he may be temperamentally unsuited for teaching, or for the sort of teaching he is required to do. In a large department, individual abilities and preferences can be catered for to some extent, but in a small one each person has to be something of a Jack of all trades. The teacher may be inexperienced as well as untrained (and courses for training university teachers are mainly aimed at training *lecturers*) — and with small groups each set is a new experience, so that the teacher has to learn new techniques as he goes along. What works with one individual or group does not necessarily work with another, and there is no means of avoiding the constant search for ways to 'get through' to particular students. The teacher who would prefer not to involve himself in this way or who finds it difficult to do so runs the risk of alienating his students (and getting poorer results as well as perhaps arousing hostility) in a way that would not be so likely to happen to a lecturer with a large audience. Teachers and students have higher mutual expectations when groups are small.

The fact that in many cases students have no knowledge of our languages before they arrive means that a good deal of teaching of the basic skills in the language is needed. This is not what is usually understood by 'university teaching' and here again, the teacher who is teaching both beginners and postgraduate students needs to be very versatile. The art of making language

acquisition interesting and rewarding is not an easy one, and the teacher facing beginners may have forgotten how difficult an exotic language is to start on, or may feel that this sort of teaching is a waste of his time. Either way he may get both irritable and stale. Nor, in many cases, can he send students away to learn by themselves, since often there are few books and those which exist are not satisfactory. Besides, if he gets rid of students in this way, what *is* he doing for them? The same objections apply to taped courses; and, to counter the obvious suggestions, to write one's own text books and taped courses requires a considerable amount of time, not to speak of expertise and technical knowledge that again is partly outside the teacher's sphere, in which he may feel little interest, and for which he may have no aptitude. In a large department either there are horses for courses or else at least there can be some rotation.

For the student, the small size of the class raises many problems. With only one or two companions he has not much of a yard-stick for his own performance. If he is reasonably good, he may get an exaggerated idea of his knowledge and progress and jog along, complacently under-achieving. If he is timid, on the other hand, he may easily feel inadequate vis à vis his teacher who seems to know everything and before whom he displays his blinding ignorance five times a week or so. The first year at a new institution, when you have been cock of the walk at your previous one, is always a traumatic experience. Coupled with a heartfelt sense of incompetence at one's chosen subject, the experience can be daunting indeed.

If there are pressures of work on the teacher, there are comparable pressures on the student. It is obvious if he misses a class or skips his preparation or written work. In the class itself attention is frequently focused on him and he cannot let his thoughts wander or it will be noticed — and not only by the teacher who, if observant, would probably notice anyway whatever the size of class, but also by his fellow-students, before whom he loses face. The student who is shy or tongue-tied is very noticeable in a small class, and however sensitive and sympathetic the teacher, he cannot always save the student embarrassment. The brash student who always knows the answer may irritate his fellows or prevent them working out a solution for themselves, and the teacher cannot always protect both sides.

In class, then, there is a great deal of pressure on the student. But also outside class he has not much support from fellows. In a large class there are always some who are better and some worse at different things and students can give each other mutual help and support. In a small class the help may be all one way, and this is bad for both giver and receiver — in fact it generally just breaks down. The big frog in a little pond syndrome applies here too: the student has to attend classes partly because in many cases the teacher is the world authority on a particular subject (even if he may be biased or inadequate himself) and the student wants and needs this knowledge, which may not all be written up. If the teacher has no other pond to go to, the student is in like case; and however good a teacher may be, the student may suffer from a lack of variety. Nor

is the isolated student immune to the possibility of eccentric development himself.

Besides, in a close contact situation, it is unlikely that students and teacher will always be compatible. At the least there is the danger of over-exposure to one person's views, outlook and prejudices; at the worst there can develop a positive dislike of a teacher or fellow-student. Without great care and self-restraint this can become mutual and a source of extreme discomfort, not to say distress.

There may also be a real sense of insecurity about the course, since there may not be much precedent. The student may be the only one taking a particular option, and in extreme cases his course may never have been taken before, or not for many years, so that he cannot get advice from old hands or even study past exam papers. The teacher, too, may be somewhat at a loss in such a situation. Teaching *ad hominem* makes comparability difficult, and the present *homo* may be startlingly different from the last one he encountered, five years or so before.

Some of the problems outlined above are admittedly somewhat intractable, particularly where personality is involved. A few panaceas are now offered, but it is not suggested that they are all that is needed.

Actual class numbers can sometimes be increased by various means. We at SOAS quite often admit occasional students if they can fit into courses, and these not only swell the numbers a little but also supply some leaven from outside. But they usually appear only for the first year courses. Sometimes groups of students can be combined for general background lectures e.g. on the history or geography of a large area such as Africa, bringing in students of several different languages. At least here students meet others with broadly similar problems. At the later stages of the course students from different years can sometimes be combined for the study of particular literary texts, especially where such texts are options. This enables a text to be taught only in alternate years and at once lessens the teaching load and may enlarge or at least vary the groups of students. Outside the teaching situation there should be every encouragement for social groups based on the language studied, with students (and occasionally staff) giving talks, showing slides, cooking local food, perhaps putting on entertainments or exhibitions of study-visit trophies or projects, and so on.

Efforts can of course be made to turn the situation to advantage. Individual work should be encouraged. The work should always be gone over carefully and graded. This is vital when there are few students as the student can then measure his achievements against himself, and against his teacher's expectations, in the absence of many fellows. Students can be asked to give papers themselves, but care needs to be taken here, as at the undergraduate level this can be a lazy get-out for the teacher and not of much benefit to the class. The narrow view can be combated by showing work from previous years on occasion.

Enforced attendance (enforced by circumstances, I mean) and possible boredom must be dealt with, and the students given at least the illusion of some freedom

within the course. Suggestions should be invited (and where possible acted upon) for choice of reading matter, timing of written work, proportion of oral practice and so on, though of course it is the teacher's duty to ensure that the right amount of work goes on somehow. The teacher should vary his style and teaching methods (use of tapes, visual material, oral, written and so on) and also the content of his teaching (e.g. texts of all kinds could be read, from sauce-bottle labels to love poems). It may sound simple, but even a change of milieu can sometimes be refreshing; and I was myself surprised when at the beginning of this year I suggested my fourth year students should give in their written work on Wednesdays and they said 'Oh good, we've been giving it in on Mondays for the last two years and it'll be nice to have a change!' For courses which are seldom taught, the least the teacher can do is to provide mock examination papers.

Sometimes it may be possible to bring in an outside speaker, and every chance should be taken, particularly if the visitor is from the country under study or, especially, a native speaker. Even if he has not much to say, his very presence is a stimulation and reassurance to the students that the place actually exists. Occasionally exchanges of teachers (or students) can be arranged, and this may help the teacher's need for contact with his sources. If, however, no suitable exchange arrangement can be made, I think it is not impossible for the teacher to make short study visits. It means more work for him, for he must probably teach extra before he goes, leave his students with carefully considered work to do which they are capable of doing on their own, and going over it with them when he gets back. But it is not only a refreshing break for the teacher; it can also be a relief from supervision for the student, and give him a taste of self-discipline that he may not always get when the teacher is present all the time. Students' study visits where possible give a tremendous fillip to a course.

If problems of personality clashes do arise — and it is up to the teacher to forestall and avoid them as far as possible — they should not be allowed to drag on and deteriorate. Some detachment and a sense of humour are vital for the teacher, and all should keep their eyes on the real goal, which is the imparting and acquisition of knowledge. Great soul-searching is not always necessary, but sometimes a little frank discussion can help. This can only safely be initiated by the teacher, since a student will only initiate such a discussion when he feels really desperate, and by that time the situation may have gone too far to be readily retrieved. It is important that no blame is attached to either side in the case of such a clash, but that the causes of the particular problem are coolly looked at, and that both sides recognise that there is a human being capable of being hurt sitting across the desk. Sometimes just airing a problem is sufficient to get it solved; sometimes healing the symptoms (e.g. persistent lateness on the part of a student, non-return of work on the part of the teacher) is enough to cool the situation and make it bearable. It takes a good deal of courage to initiate a discussion of this kind since if one does it fairly one lays oneself open to one knows not what; but from my own experience I can only say that on the few occasions that I have resorted to it the end results have been good — at least a relaxation of tension and a better working atmosphere, as well as a

better mutual understanding.

The loneliness of the teacher can be mitigated in part by personal relations with his colleagues and by shared academic interests with his better and more advanced students. Contact with colleagues at other institutions has its value of course; and for some of us to link our research with a wider discipline such as general linguistics, literary studies, sociology or in some cases history may help to keep us alive. For those who like teaching, practising and improving that skill is a consolation; for those who don't, improving it can at least lessen their annoyance at a necessary evil.

6

J M Trim

Less common languages at Cambridge

The problem of providing the adult population with the kind and degree of language proficiency appropriate to its needs seems likely to become more important as the country adapts itself to its new role and status in the world, yet at the same time more difficult to solve as the various sectors of our education system come under increasing pressure.

The less commonly-taught languages are, of course, far from constituting a uniform group. Some are the languages of very large communities indeed, but ones with which, whether as a result of geographical remoteness or political barriers, personal contacts are relatively few, while business and professional contacts are confined to a relatively small number of specialists or are sporadic and occasional. Others are the languages of relatively small communities near at hand, whose languages have currency only within their borders, but with which we are in the process of becoming more closely linked, so that some personal contact with the indigenous life of that community becomes almost a frequent occurrence. By far the largest group of languages however is that of those spoken by relatively few speakers in distant places, so that contacts are few and sporadic.

It would be difficult to justify a place in the school curriculum for any of these groups. If (despite some disquieting signs to the contrary) we accept the view that the aim of initial compulsory full-time education is not to force the individual into a vocational niche determined by the state, but to equip him with inner resources which will enable him to face the varying and changing circumstances of modern adult life with insight, independence and flexibility, we are bound to attempt to provide him with that linguistic equipment which will be in itself of the widest utility, whilst at the same time providing a base from which further, more precise linguistic needs can be met as they arise.

In these terms a strong case could be made out for using limited curriculum time for the understanding of the languages of our Germanic and Romance neighbours, and greater insight into the structure and use of language in general and the mother tongue in particular. However, this is not the line of curriculum

development at the present time. The pressures, which are very real, appear to be all towards the simplification of language provision and in these terms the predominance of French, and to an altogether lesser extent of German, being the languages of powerful and influential cultures close at hand, with a wide currency outside their borders and in international affairs generally, seems inevitable. There is no need to dwell on the nature of the political and administrative pressures which reinforce this basic case. Their combined effect is to make it likely that while an increasing number of British adults are likely to require a basic ability to function as members of another linguistic community, the facilities likely to be offered them in the school system are unlikely to be increased accordingly. With, to be sure, a few glorious exceptions. We must all hope they survive, but their effect on the educational system as a whole is bound to be slight, their position marginal and precarious.

The function, then, of providing for the study of the less commonly taught languages (which as we have seen comes close to meaning all but French and, perhaps, German), appears to fall to Further and Higher Education in its various forms. Here again, however, after a flush of premature stimulation, the countenance of our masters is averted. Smaller languages come to look like the kind of uneconomic side-activities which efficiency experts cut back, or off, with a sense of financial rectitude. It is abundantly clear that, if we are to cater adequately for the very real need for the less commonly taught languages, which is experienced on a scale which though small locally is substantial on a national scale, we shall have to do so within or close to the existing overall financial provision. We shall not do it by building up lectureships and departments right across the country, but only by making a limited, necessarily localised provision serve national needs.

In doing so, we shall naturally find different kinds of arrangement may be appropriate to the different categories of language. Indeed, a kind of natural selection has led over a period of time to quite varied provisions in my own university, Cambridge.

Some smaller European languages are regularly represented by University Teaching Officers within the Faculty of Modern and Medieval Languages. The Department of Scandinavian Languages has University Lectureships in Swedish, Norwegian and Danish and there are Lectureships in Polish in the Department of Slavonic Studies. There is, in addition, a Department of Other Languages, which groups together such disparate languages as Dutch, Portuguese, Provençal and Medieval Latin (though Modern Greek falls under the Faculty of Classics). The Department of Other Languages also looks after the interests of languages, such as Rumanian, Hungarian and Finnish, for which special arrangements are made as candidates present themselves. Similar arrangements are made for Serbo-Croat and Czech in the Department of Slavonic Studies.

It has been the policy of the Faculty Board of Modern and Medieval Languages to foster the study of the less commonly taught European languages

by exploiting the flexibility of the Modern and Medieval Languages Tripos, which has a modular basis within an integrated structure. That is to say that no-one takes an honours degree in French, German etc., but only in Modern and Medieval Languages.

The Tripos has two parts, taken together over three years (with the possibility of a further year spent abroad). Part one is primarily devoted to the establishment of a language proficiency of an advanced nature albeit taught and tested in a traditional way. It is taken in two languages to a comparable standard. Each language may be taken in one or two years. Normally, the 'school' languages, French, German and Spanish, having already been studied to 'A' level, are taken after one year, the 'non-school' languages (including Russian) after two. The possibility of 'splitting' part one, disposing of, say, French at the end of the first year and concentrating on Italian in the second makes it much more feasible to take up a new language at entrance.

The part one examination includes one literary paper. The others, prose composition, translation and essay together with the oral examination may be taken by any member of the University for a Certificate of Competent Knowledge (CCK). This facility is often used by the linguistically gifted students who have taken two 'school' languages for part one in order to study for a recognised advanced qualification in a third language, usually another in the same linguistic family (e.g. adding Dutch or Swedish to German, Italian to French, Portuguese to Spanish, Polish or Czech to Russian). It is also used, to a lesser but appreciable extent, by students from other Faculties who wish to acquire, or demonstrate, an advanced language proficiency.

For part two, in addition to an essay, translation paper and an optional advanced oral examination, candidates choose any four (after one year) or five (after two years) from the sixty or so papers which constitute the Tripos. Thus it is possible, and in suitable cases encouraged, for an undergraduate taking a two-year part two to include one philological or literary paper in a new language, again often one of the lesser taught ones, without undertaking the degree of commitment involved in a full part one or CCK.

Oriental languages are the responsibility of the Faculty of Oriental Studies. Though they are traditionally concerned mainly with ancient Oriental languages, literatures and cultures, lectureships established in Modern Chinese, Japanese, Hindi, Arabic, Hebrew and Persian have gone some way to making the study of modern Oriental languages possible. On the other hand, the designation of Cambridge (largely at its own instance) as a 'steady state' University, in which current Government thinking considers the 'humanities' to be over-represented, together with the fact that admission to the University is in the hands of the Colleges, few of which can afford to maintain teaching Fellows in small subjects, militates against the substantial expansion of full-time courses, unless these are organised along the lines of Mr Sloss' very successful course in Chinese.[1] African languages used to be taught in the Colonial

[1] See chapter 14 below.

Service Courses for future colonial administrators, but this provision lapsed with the demise of these courses some years ago. No provision is made for organised teaching for recognised qualifications in other languages.

However, the Department of Linguistics has considered it to be part of its function, since its inception ten years ago, to make available in the language laboratories materials for self-instruction in as wide a range of languages as possible, that is to say, in all languages for which a demand can be demonstrated (usually by a request from a research student or University Teaching Officer) and for which course materials are known to exist. These courses are then made available on open access, together with supporting course-books, for use in the laboratory, which is open 9 am - 7 pm in full term, and 9 am - 5 pm at other times. A small-scale cassette loan scheme for Senior members, for use within the University, is also operated.

A recent survey on the use of the laboratory demonstrated certain facts. One is the range of interest in the less-taught languages. Our collection covers courses in just over fifty languages. Seventy per cent of these were actually used by students in the term concerned. Furthermore, while the number of users of any one course in a less-taught language is small in relation to the major western world languages, this is compensated to a considerable extent by the intensity of use made by these learners. In many cases, they have a particularly high motivation. They need the language urgently for a definite purpose (e.g. field-work, or the study of original source materials), usually have no other access to the spoken language or to properly organised course materials, and are prepared to devote themselves as energetically to the task of learning the language as their ongoing working timetable permits.

Different, what might be called — on a biological analogy — ecological, pressures have thus produced in Cambridge over the years a highly differentiated set of possibilities for the study of less-taught languages. A number of these possibilities are the outcome of special circumstances which probably cannot be replicated elsewhere. In particular, official policy appears to be firmly set against the proliferation of posts in these languages through the university system. Some features of the system may however be of general interest in the planning of language provision in other universities.

These are :

(a) The housing by the University of an intensive full-time course of limited duration to reach a high level of general language proficiency, spoken and written, for professional users of all kinds (on the Chinese model). There would seem to be a place nationally for one, but perhaps optimally only one, for each of the major regional languages (notably Arabic and Hindi; for different special reasons Russian and Japanese might be added). After initial pump-priming these courses could be self-financing (though protected against short-term losses by guarantee), their size determined by social demand.

(b) the introduction of a modular element into the design of modern language degree courses to permit or encourage students to add a certifiable pro-

ficiency in a related 'minor' language to their principal language of study as an alternative to some element of further specialization in that language. This implies, of course, the availability of appropriately qualified teachers;

(c) the development, whether independently, or as part of a language centre or department of (applied) linguistics, or as an adjunct to a university library, or as part of a more general audio-visual or learning resource centre, of a language learning resource centre subsuming a language laboratory, but including also books and other media. This centre would be capital intensive, and oriented to a predominantly self-instructional facility. The centre would be financed by the university, though some part of the cost might be offset by services to other universities in the provision of materials (though in toto these charges should balance) and by making services available on a fully economic basis to the host community.

Such resource centres might become, in one form or another, part of the regular structure of universities and polytechnics. There would be obvious advantages — especially in respect of the less widely taught languages — in conceiving them as forming a national or, preferably, international network, with provision for a coordinated programme of research and development, the resulting materials being then made nationally available.

The provision of a really efficient self-instructional facility cannot simply rely, as we have necessarily done at Cambridge, on acquiring the language laboratory courses, audio-visual and audio-lingual, which have been commercially produced hitherto. These courses seem to have proved more successful for self-instruction than might have been expected. Nevertheless, they have not been conceived or constructed for that purpose. In most cases, accurate speech perception and self-appraisal are naïvely presupposed, and a variety of essential functions are left to the 'indispensable' teacher. These include the diagnosis and cure of persistent errors, explicit explanation, revision and consolidation, as well as the transfer from drill to free conversation and the evaluation of the overall success of the learner in acquiring a useful language proficiency at the end of the day. Language laboratory courses have also been conceived as aiming strictly at a conversational speech communication, with heavy reliance on the learner's alibity to cope informally with listening comprehension and the reading and writing of sustained discourse.

Courses for self-instruction must differ from conventional language laboratory courses by

(a) being multi-faceted;
(b) providing an effective programme to sensitise the learner to the sound system of the language;
(c) providing an apparatus of explicit explanation for consultation;
(d) containing provision for revisionary 'recycling' and exploitation;
(e) providing means for continuous and terminal self assessment;
(f) affording so far as possible a variety of modes of use (employing some modular principle) and sufficient guidance to the user for a learner to

select one of a number of possible paths through the material according to his needs, prior knowledge and study experience, and resources, especially time.

The Dutch adult beginners' course, produced by a close collaboration between the Department of Applied Linguistics in the Vrije Universiteit van Amsterdam and the Department of Linguistics in Cambridge has attempted to meet some of these requirements. An initial sensitization to the phonetics and orthography of Dutch is given in two videotapes (to be available in the self-instructional video-lab being introduced at Cambridge).

No-one would wish to deny that the provision on a national scale of self-instructional facilities for the study of the less widely taught languages would present a number of difficult problems of a practical order.

It is very difficult at a time of severe financial and psychological pressure to avoid succumbing to a siege mentality. It is entirely understandable for scholars to retreat into their individual scholarship and to attempt to protect it as far as possible from attenuation. Furthermore, a teacher who is, say, the sole representative of a 'minor' language in a university is likely to carry a heavier, more diversified and demanding teaching load than his colleagues in large departments, in spite of the apparently lighter student-staff ratio. He may have little time available for developing courses for use, primarily, in other places.

It is also unfortunately the case that, traditional academic values being what they are, a scholar who devotes himself to providing students with the basic apparatus of study in a language field where it does not yet exist, may find this work discounted when it comes to academic preferment. Again, subject to current pressures, it is doubtful whether any university could agree, out of its own resources, to carry the costs of a course development team, even for a limited period, for altruistic purposes.

Clearly, significant positive contributions cannot be expected to come about spontaneously, but only a common policy backed by appropriate resources. It is therefore very much a question of a common will to establish the machinery for the establishment of priorities and exercise of control and of a public willingness to make available the necessary resources — and of our own to accept the disciplines involved.

7

Alan Dobson

The related language approach

Many less commonly taught languages are important for political or commercial reasons, but they suffer the injustice of being regarded as 'minority' languages in education, even if they are 'majority' languages in the real world, and are spoken by millions. To rescue the less commonly taught languages from their minority position in education involves the conscious commitment of resources to them on quite a large scale. Even if sufficient resources are committed, the return on the investment is uncertain, for people may be reluctant to commit themselves to the cause : staff in the absence of a secure career structure, and students if there is no obvious outlet for their skills. Unless specialist centres exist (such as SOAS and SSEES), or unless the more popular languages are sacrificed, the less commonly taught languages find themselves overwhelmed in an unequal competition for scarce resources, for only with difficulty can they show themselves to be viable in conventional resource terms such as staff-student ratios.

The creation of more specialist centres with the financial and moral support to overcome the resource problem is one way to boost the less commonly taught languages, but it only offers a partial solution, even if a few languages do become slightly more commonly taught. If less commonly taught languages are only developed in isolation away from the mainstream of language courses, attitudes towards them will not improve and interest in them will not increase, and the commitment of people to them on any scale will not follow. Other ways of tackling the minority language problem therefore need to be sought. One way, at least for institutions offering degree courses in European languages, is the related language approach : teaching a language with reference to another of common origin and similar structure which the student already knows, providing Portuguese for students of Spanish, Dutch for students of German, and so on. In this way one can extend the stock of languages offered by each institution, and established languages can provide support for less commonly taught ones rather than present an obstacle to their development.

The related language approach has several advantages : it builds on the main

language intake and viable group sizes become possible; the student's interest in the cognate language is exploited and he is able to embark on a new language whilst keeping the security of his main language. It can use existing staff resources and expertise; in many institutions some staff already have a less commonly taught language in their armoury: their subsidiary language from undergraduate days in some cases, their mother tongue in others, and combinations such as Spanish/Portuguese, German/Swedish, Russian/Czech may not be too difficult to cover. Moreover, their experience of linguistics or of philology provides a disciplinary base for teaching a related language. Materials and methods developed for teaching the appropriate main language can often be adapted for use with the related language.

With these considerations in mind, at Wolverhampton we have been developing three related language combinations, Dutch/German, Portuguese/Spanish, Italian/French, since 1973. Degree students take two main languages throughout their four year course and a related language (two hours per week) in their second year. The related language study is seen as contributing to the students' education in several ways:

(a) it gives them, in a short time, a basic working knowledge of a third language which they can develop in their career if they wish.

(b) it equips them with a useful language learning technique which they should be able to apply in parallel situations later.

(c) it broadens their education by making their area studies more 'real' and accessible: for example, Dutch gives a new dimension to studies of Europe, and Portuguese to studies of Latin America.

(d) it is possible to relate their language learning experience to their studies of linguistics.

(e) it develops in them a more tolerant attitude to less commonly taught languages in general.

Although the courses are still developing, we feel these educational objectives are being achieved and we believe that offering a choice of related languages is proving to be a worthwhile venture. This does not mean that the teaching and resource problems have been solved overnight or that the related language approach has not created problems of its own in both methodology and materials.

Teaching a related language can involve a complete rethink of method rather than merely an adaptation of approach. The definition of objectives, always important in language teaching, can assume a special importance in teaching a related language. For example, teaching a person to read Portuguese need not take up more time than teaching him to read Spanish, whereas comprehension of spoken Portuguese, given the phonological complexities of the language, is infinitely harder to acquire than an understanding of spoken Spanish. Also the degree of syntactical or lexical similarity between the two languages can vary according to style and register — teaching a student of

Spanish to understand economic journals in Portuguese is considerably easier than teaching him to read a novel. In view of the time pressure on a related language, limitation of objectives and definition of priorities is essential if effective concentration of effort is to be achieved.

While the sequence listen — speak — read — write may be the one we favour for presentation of a totally new language to beginners, is it the most appropriate in a related language situation? One can put a case for beginning with reading if the written word offers most points of contact. Again, one may react against teaching beginners about 'grammar' or 'phonetics', but a descriptive approach may be most useful in pinpointing the relationships between two cognate languages.

Similarity between the main language and the cognate language provides a major support for the student in the related language situation. One can take certain things as read and this saves time, but apparent similarity can often be misleading, particularly on the lexical level.

One may be sceptical about the value of certain teaching techniques in a main language situation, but find they acquire a new importance in a related language situation. One may doubt, for example, whether familiarity with the sounds of a language is a necessary aid to understanding the written word, but for the reader of a cognate language it may be a useful defence against interference. To take another example, translation from one foreign language into another is an artificial exercise of somewhat dubious value in normal circumstances, but translation (or should one say transcription?) between the main language and the related language is a useful device for sharpening the student's concentration and putting his knowledge of the two languages to the test.

If the related language situation makes us revise some of our approaches to teaching, it is not surprising that there are problems in acquiring or devising teaching materials. Generally speaking, published materials don't fit — books and tape courses tend to be geared to the completely uninitiated rather than to the experienced language student approaching a related language. One can design one's own materials — people are doing this all the time — but it involves a certain amount of technical assistance, such as recording, typing, copying etc, if it is to be done properly, and if a publisher does find one's manuscript interesting, is he likely to find a viable market for the course?

If you are designing your own materials, you may have to do the spade work — raw material such as comparative lists of lexical items or of syntactical points may have to be compiled from scratch. Most people involved with less commonly taught languages inevitably have to work in isolation and therefore the overheads of course development are likely to be disproportionate to output. If a circuit exists for the informal exchange and circulation of ideas and materials, one can overcome some of the disadvantages of isolation, but if one wishes to develop more than informal contacts finance is likely to be a problem.

The related language approach sometimes involves problems of nationalism: it is not always easy for example to convince a Portuguese that his language can be, or ought to be, taught via Spanish.

Though staff in several institutions in practice are using a related language approach, there appears to be no systematic research — linguistic, methodological, or psychological — on the related language learning situation itself, so one has little or no theoretical basis for experiments with teaching materials.

8

M J de K Holman

Bulgarian at Leeds

Since October 1968 students reading for a degree in Russian Studies at Leeds University have been able to take Bulgarian as one of their two special subjects. These special subjects are chosen from a list of approximately eight topics, ranging from Soviet geography to Russian radical thought, and are taken in the penultimate and final years. By this time all the students should possess a firm grounding in Russian. They have either obtained an 'A' level pass at school and subsequently completed the first year of a three-year course at the university, or, not having had the opportunity to take Russian 'A' level at school, they have completed the first two years of a four-year course at the university. In absolute terms the number of students opting to take Bulgarian remains small: approximately six per year out of a total of thirty plus. In relative terms, however, this number is roughly equal to the number of students opting for the other special subjects, and as far as language teaching and literary discussions are concerned, the group is of an ideal size.

As the Bulgarian paper is one of nine taken by single subject Russian students in their final examinations, and as Bulgarian is, moreover, only an optional subject, our aims are, of necessity, modest. At the end of the course we hope that the student will have mastered the essentials of Bulgarian grammar and will be able to hold a conversation in simple, but grammatically correct Bulgarian. We also hope that he will be able, using a dictionary where necessary, to translate modern literary Bulgarian into English. Furthermore we hope that the student will, both through study of the shorter prose works of one of Bulgaria's major writers, and as a consequence of an extended period of study at the University of Sofia, have gained some insight into the culture, concerns and everyday life of Bulgaria today.

The course extends over the student's final two years and falls quite naturally into three sections. The first section embraces the first two terms of the penultimate year, when the student attends two classes per week and is required to do approximately one hour of preparation for each class. In these we study the basic essentials of modern Bulgarian grammar, using a textbook produced

in Sofia as a point of departure and concentrating, wherever possible, on those areas where Bulgarian can be seen to differ most from Russian. We try to strike a balance between grammatical explanations, practical exercises, oral work conducted entirely in Bulgarian and work with texts recorded on tape by Bulgarian native speakers. The second section is made up of the final term of the penultimate year which the students spend at the University of Sofia. (The current — 1975-1977 — Anglo/Bulgarian Cultural Agreement provides for a total of up to eighty months per year for direct exchanges of undergraduates.) While in Sofia our students receive a monthly stipend, free accommodation in a student hostel and free tuition in Bulgarian at the University. Formal tuition has generally been limited to between six and eight hours per week and equally divided between classes devoted to oral work, grammatical explanations and exercises, simple essay writing and translation from Bulgarian into English.

On returning to Leeds in October to commence their final year, the students embark on the third section of the course. This is made up of one class per week for two terms when we read, translate and comment on a selection of short stories by Yordan Yovkov (1880-1937). We expect students to spend a minimum of two hours each week preparing for the class. The final examination, which is the only piece of formal assessment to which the students are subjected, is a three-hour written examination. The students are required to translate two passages taken from short stories by Yordan Yovkov into English — one passage is unprepared, while the other is taken from a story which has been studied in class — to write a literary appreciation of a passage taken from a prepared text and to write two short essays on literary themes. The examination thus reflects the course, being in part literary, in part linguistic in emphasis.

As far as I have been able to ascertain, there exists no primer specifically designed for English native speakers who have a prior knowledge of Russian and wish to learn Bulgarian using this knowledge as their starting point. Indeed, given the very specific nature of our requirements in the Bulgarian course at Leeds, it is hardly surprising that no single textbook should adequately meet our needs. We therefore have to make do with a very heterogeneous set of materials, drawn from Bulgaria, the German Democratic Republic and the USA :

Ghinina St, T[s] Nikolova and L Sakasova, *A Bulgarian Texbook for Foreigners,* Naouka i Izkoustvo, Sofia, 1965.

Walter, H, *Wir lernen Bulgarisch sprechen,* VEB Verlag Sprache und Literatur, Halle, 1962, (+ 3 records).

Lord, A, *Beginning Bulgarian,* Mouton and Co., 's Gravenhage 1962.

While Lord provides the occasional apt explanation of complex points of grammar and *Wir lernen Bulgarisch sprechen* supplies graded Bulgarian texts based on previously explained grammatical rules, Ghinina's book provides the back-bone of the course.

The material we use on the second year of the course is far more homogeneous.

Collections of Yovkov's short stories are always readily available in Bulgaria, and our students usually obtain the set texts during their three-month stay in Sofia. I generally do not insist that the students read critical literature on Yovkov, but should they wish to do so, the current holdings of the Leeds University libraries would more than meet their requirements. Should the students wish to listen to the set texts being read, they can do so in the central language laboratory which has recordings of a number of Yovkov stories made by Bulgarian native speakers, who, in the course of visits to Leeds, have allowed themselves to be exploited in the interests of Bulgarian studies in the United Kingdom. The incentive for students to make use of these recordings is not, however, very strong, for their spoken Bulgarian is not tested in the final examination.

ORGANISATIONAL PROBLEMS

Finance

From the start there has existed the tacit understanding that the needs of the course, whether they be connected with the provision of extra staff or additional teaching materials, must be met from existing Russian Departmental resources. This means that the study of Bulgarian at Leeds cannot develop much beyond the level currently reached.

The supply of students

As Bulgarian forms part of an overall Russian Studies course and does not exist in its own right as a course leading to a BA in Bulgarian, we are not faced with the problem of attracting school leavers to apply for entry to the Bulgarian course. Naturally we do tell possible applicants to the Russian studies course that we are able to offer Bulgarian as a special subject extending over the final two years of the course, but the decision whether or not to take Bulgarian is not made until students are already fully established as members of the university. Our problem is rather to persuade students who are already in the department and are reasonably strong in their language work to opt for Bulgarian rather than for one of the other special subjects.

The supply of teaching materials

One of the main problems we faced when discussing the possibility of introducing Bulgarian as a special subject was how to obtain the necessary teaching materials. Eventually we managed to break the familiar vicious circle of 'no students — no books; no books — no students!' thanks to the generous assistance of the University of Sofia Summer Seminar for Foreign Slavists (basic textbooks) and the Bulgarian Committee for Friendship and Cultural Relations with Foreign Countries (newspapers, journals and general works on Bulgarian literature). We were also presented with a large quantity of books, including basic works by and on Yordan Yovkov, by the Cyril and Methodius National Library in Sofia, which had recently received a considerable number of free books and journals from the National Central Library at Boston Spa.

It must be said, however, that the teaching materials used in our language classes are really very rudimentary. What we really need are materials based

on comparative grammatical analyses of Bulgarian and English and Bulgarian and Russian. Grammars of Bulgarian written by Russians for Russians do exist, and the ones I have managed to trace I have found very useful, but I still need to locate course materials used in Soviet universities in the teaching of Bulgarian to native speakers of Russian.

Contacts with native speakers

So far we have been able to guarantee all students of Bulgarian at Leeds a three-month study period at the University of Sofia by making it possible for a similar number of students of English from the University of Sofia to study in Leeds.

FUTURE DEVELOPMENTS

Undergraduate level

To up-grade the course into a full subsidiary subject taken over three years would, as a result of the anomalous status of the subsidiary subject at Leeds, involve a great deal of extra work for a very meagre return. And even if the money were available, to contemplate the establishment of a full undergraduate honours course in Bulgarian at Leeds, when the course already on offer at the School of Slavonic and Eastern European Languages in London only manages to attract the occasional student, would not seem to be advisable.

Postgraduate level

Here some development could be possible. Resources at Leeds include sufficient materials to enable a postgraduate to write a thesis to MPhil level on a limited number of literary and linguistic topics. Much of the initial supervision could be provided at Leeds, but we would naturally expect any eventual student(s) to spend the greater part of the latter stages of study in Bulgaria working under the guidance of Bulgarian specialists. Our main difficulty would be to attract the right kind of student, and at present the only source of such candidates would seem to be graduates of our own department who had taken Bulgarian as a special subject and obtained a good enough degree to qualify for a research grant.

The teaching of Bulgarian as a second Slavonic language to Russian has proved a worthwhile undertaking and could, perhaps, provide a model for the teaching of other less well-known Slavonic languages to students of Russian. (Czech has been taught at Leeds in a similar fashion and with even greater success — three completed MPhil theses and five British Council postgraduate scholarships to Czechoslovakia — since 1966.) Not only have students been able to use their already well-established knowledge of Russian as a take-off point for the acquisition of another Slavonic language, but their study of Bulgarian literature and culture both in England and in Bulgaria has given an extra dimension to their study of things Russian.

9

D Short

The position of Czech

There are two basic grammars commonly available[1]. Neither is perfect, but I have found the Lee and Lee a useful skeleton basis on which to teach. Of material emanating from Czechoslovakia mention should be made of Sova's grammar, the availability of which, however, tends to be sporadic. Like much other material produced there, but not commonly available in this country, it suffers the disadvantage of being primarily intended for students from the developing countries who travel to Czechoslovakia to study. I have sometimes found that English course material intended for Czechs can be put to good use by turning it "inside out". The disadvantage here is again that such books are not always available at short notice.

The main problem attached to the publication of new materials is financial. However, one new grammar shortly to be published (Brusak) will be printed by offset, the money coming out of special funds for this purpose at Cambridge.

Since there are grammars available, although the perfect one has still to be found, the main area of development lies in the production of other teaching aids, notably taped courses for pronunciation and drill.

Of the unpublished material that should be mentioned, there are some tapes used internally at Cambridge[2]. In London we have begun producing a small amount of taped material, so far only in the form of passages of continuous prose for listening and comprehension. So far, however, we have only had the benefit of the collaboration of native non-professional speakers (Czech and Slovak). Also unpublished and in regular use in London is the manuscript version of the Brusak grammar mentioned above.

Needs for contacts with the Czech language community are in part covered by the cultural agreement between Great Briain and Czechoslovakia. There are ten post-graduate places available annually (although these are not always

[1] Harkins W E, *A modern Czech grammar*, Kings Crown Publications, 1953 and Lee W R and Z Lee, *Teach yourself Czech*, English Universities Press 1959.
[2] These can be made available to other institutions at small cost.

taken up by people interested in language study), and most students at some point in their university career are able to attend the annual language summer school in Prague. Arrangements for both of these are in the hands of the British Council. Generally speaking, it is not easy for the undergraduate to spend a year in Czechoslovakia (and many would welcome the chance), since this falls outside the terms of the cultural agreement and would have to be arranged privately. While teachers in this country would clearly support the students' desire in this respect, the stumbling block is the cost: on a private visit the student becomes automatically a tourist in the eyes of the Czechoslovak authorities, which, as elsewhere in Eastern Europe, means he has to exchange a compulsory minimum of (currently) $7.00 per day. It is practically impossible to get this waived.

At one point last year there did seem to be a hope that arrangements could be made for an undergraduate exchange with Charles University in Prague. A number of students wrote to Prague in pursuit of the idea, but the answer received was that such an exchange would be contemplated only if at least ten applications were forthcoming. Clearly it is unlikely that we should ever be able to send anywhere near that number of students of Czech from a single institution. Outside London, however, the University of Leeds has been successful in negotiating its own exchange of a small number of undergraduates with the University of Brno.

As for teachers and scholars, there is some provision for exchanges of lecture tours under the cultural agreement. Also the British scholar invited to Czechoslovakia to give lectures or to participate in a conference will have his expenses, except travel to the country, taken care of. Worse off is the scholar wishing to visit Czechoslovakia to pursue private research or meet colleagues: he, like the undergraduate, becomes a tourist liable to make the compulsory minimum daily currency exchange. In London some financial assistance is available to people going on non-lecture visits in the shape of grants from the Hayter Fund.

The people who choose to study Czech can be divided into three categories:

(a) native speakers, generally the only ones to take the three-year honours degree, who apply to study Czech, in many instances, in the mistaken belief that it must be an easy way to a degree. That is not to say there are not those who treat their studies with the seriousness they merit.

(b) non-native speakers, who take four years for their degree course, the first being a preliminary language course to reach A-level standard. The 'needs' of these people are difficult to define, since many arrive with the express intention of studying something a little out-of-the-way. Nevertheless, the seeds of interest will generally have been sown by a holiday in Czechoslovakia, penfriendships and so forth.

(c) People who have a specific need for the language as an ancillary to their main field of study, in particular art-historians and musicians. Many of these last are better served by a language school than a university course, a need

that can be met in London, but rarely in the provinces.

The degree course in Czech follows very largely the pattern of other modern language courses and consists of lectures on the modern language, the history of the language, the history of the literature and practical courses in translation. There are compulsory support courses in phonetics and conversation, and regular literature seminars. Evaluation of progress is by examination, which, as far as the modern language is concerned, consists of translation from and into Czech, with the additional test of oral proficiency as part of the final examination.

The main problems in further education appear to be the lack of adequate teaching aids, whether text-books, material on tape, or even dictionaries. The latter are not difficult to come by, indeed Czech appears to be a language represented by a dictionary, if nothing else, in public libraries the length and breadth of the country. The commonly available dictionaries are, however, mostly small or medium only in size, and none are at all outstanding in quality. The one large dictionary is Poldauf's English-Czech, which, in spite of its re-edition with an appendix covering many entries not included in the original edition, is in many ways outdated. Like all the others its main drawback from our point of view is that it is framed primarily to meet the needs of Czechs learning English.

Within Great Britain inter-institutional collaboration in the teaching of Czech is practically confined to the provision of external examiners by one institution for another, and that relates only to Oxford, Cambridge and London.

International collaboration in part comes out of the cultural agreement and provides London with a full-time lektor, another one being shared by Oxford and Sheffield. At the levels involved in teaching Czech there is a good measure of collaboration with opposite numbers in Czechoslovakia (teachers of English or Czech). This involves either joint research projects or the exchange of books, which is important since in both directions the acquisition of books through official channels is often fraught with difficulty or delay. Perhaps the most important individual act of collaboration currently is the involvement of an English scholar (Dr R B Pynsent) in the production of what promises to be a new, larger and more reliable Czech-English dictionary. A joint London-Prague project for some audio material is also being planned.

The position of Slovak is somewhat that of a Cinderella. The language is studied only after Czech has been learnt. Any more detailed knowledge of the language and its specific distinctive features comes out of the course in the history of Czech and Slovak, which are taken together for this purpose.

Much of what has been said above in relation to Czech applies even more so to Slovak. The one point where Slovak is comparatively better off is in the existence of a large and reliable Slovak-English dictionary (Konuš J J, *Slovak-English Phraseological Dictionary*, Slovak Catholic Sokol, Passaic N J, 1969) in addition to a large English-Slovak dictionary (*Hrobak's English-Slovak dictionary*, Speller NY 1965).

10

M K Verma

Hindi, Chinese and Swahili at York

Hindi

Hindi, in common with Swahili and Chinese, is taught in the penultimate and final year of the BA Language (including linguistics) course at the University of York. Over the past few years the number of students taking Hindi has ranged from eight to seventeen.

In the third year the 'Use of Hindi' course includes a week's intensive teaching in the autumn, spring and summer terms, followed by four contact hours per week each term. Students use *Spoken and written Hindi* by Fairbanks and Misra. They are introduced to the Devanagari script in the first half of the Autumn term. Students spend an hour in the language-laboratory for aural comprehension work using the materials devised at York. These include exercises in Hindi phonetics and Hindi short stories. Students spend a further period with a native speaker in conversation classes. There is also a pedagogically oriented grammar class each week.

During each academic year graduates who are native speakers of Hindi come to York to do research. They are required to assist with Hindi teaching. At present we have two graduate students from India.

In the fourth year only a select group of students may study 'Advanced use of Hindi' as one of their options. This course is taught four hours per week in the autumn and spring terms. A satisfactory performance in the third year 'Hindi' course is a prerequisite. This is an extension of the third year 'Use of Hindi' course. The object is to improve the student's knowledge of and command over spoken and written Hindi. The course includes grammar, translation and comprehension. The teaching arrangements are very similar to those for the third year. In addition to the prose texts produced at York use is also made of R S McGregor's *Outline of Hindi Grammar*.

In the fourth year all students (who took Hindi as their new language in the third year) follow a course in the 'Structure and history of Hindi'.

The primary function of the study of the Hindi language is to help the students

achieve a certain degree of command over the language, to widen the linguistic experience of the students and to provide them with new insights into linguistic structure and language use. The aim, then, is to integrate our students' knowledge of Hindi at all levels: descriptive linguistics, historical linguistics, sociolinguistics and psycholinguistics.

We have links with the Central Institute of Hindi, New Delhi/Agra. In the past a few of our students have been able to go to this institute and follow their courses.

Swahili

Swahili, in common with the other exotic languages offered at York, is taught in the third and fourth year of the BA Language (with Linguistics) course. Over the last few years the number taking Swahili in each of the third and fourth years has ranged from nine to thirteen.

The basic third year 'Use of Swahili' course includes a week's intensive teaching before the beginning of the autumn and spring terms, as well as four contact hours per week during the term. Use is made of the US Foreign Service Institute *Swahili Basic Course* for language laboratory work during the first term and a half; this is followed, in the second half of the course by aural comprehension work in the language-laboratory using a course devised at York. There are also grammar and text-study classes, and conversation classes with a Swahili-speaker. In each academic year the current holder of the York East African postgraduate scholarship is required to assist with the Swahili teaching (usually the oral work and laboratory monitoring) and for the past two years we have been fortunate to have had native speakers — in 1973-4 a graduate of Nairobi University from Mombasa and this year a Zanzibari woman graduate of Dar es Salaam University.

In the fourth year a 'Structure and history of Swahili' course is taught, with the aim of integrating the students' knowledge of Swahili at all linguistic levels with the linguistics component of the Language course. 'Use of Swahili' can be continued into the fourth year by taking an option course available to 'single-subject' Language students. The work includes aural comprehension using the York course *Tusikilize na Kufahamu* in the language-laboratory together with grammar and text-study classes which make use of a wide range of modern writing including one major text; this year's major text has been Muhammed Said Abdulla's novel *Kisima cha Giningi;* the course also includes essay-writing and conversation, as alternatives in any one fourth year course.

A few students each year like to maintain their interest in Swahili when they leave and there are at present three York graduates in East Africa teaching within the VSO scheme, and making use of their Swahili; indeed one is actually teaching it in Western Kenya.

The department tries to maintain close links with all the East African universities; one member of staff was a temporary research associate of the University of Nairobi while engaged on sociolinguistic fieldwork in Kenya in 1973.

Chinese

As with Hindi and Swahili, Modern Standard Chinese is taught in the Language Department for the last two years of the BA course, compulsorily for one year and optionally for a further year. Students receive four contact hours per week, with intensive courses in the first week of each term. The aim of the compulsory course is to give students a basic competence in and familiarity with MSC, as well as providing them with an introduction to the writing system. Students who show sufficient aptitude may continue studying Chinese for a further year. Text books used, for both years, are the De Francis series and the Peking published *Ji chu Han yu* as well as material based on its sequel, *Han yu Duben*. Students are also required to take, in their final year a course in the history and structure of the Chinese language. In 1974/5 there were 26 students taking the course and in 1975/6 there are 22.

11

C Shackle

Teaching Panjabi

In this country Panjabi is mainly significant as a language of immigrants. Three main areas of teaching deserve to be isolated, each having rather different problems. These are :

(a) teaching at university level, e.g. as at SOAS;

(b) teaching the language to English speakers involved with the immigrant communities as officials, researchers, friends, etc.

(c) teaching the language within the immigrant communities, especially to second-generation children.

I will concentrate on the first, because it is most familiar to me, and because some of the problems I have encountered here are common to other areas also, rather than because I consider it the most important area.

In fact, in numerical terms it is the least important. I normally reckon to have about two students per year. In the last five years, since I initiated the teaching of Panjabi at SOAS, only two students have done a full course in the language: numbers have been made up by servicing specialists in other areas, e.g. anthropologists [i.e. working in area (b)]. Most of my non-degree students come for two or three terms, during which I am to teach a basic reading knowledge, i.e. to a point where the local Panjabi newspapers can be read with occasional use of a dictionary. Oral proficiency attained varies greatly. Since I am reluctant to organize an intensive programme, I urge my students to make the most of their opportunities for talking with Panjabi-speakers, since it is only by speaking that they will attain fluency. Work in class is designed to correct faults of pronunciation and to impart a knowledge of basic patterns by the repetition of simple drills on these. At this level, therefore, the scope of my teaching is rather similar to that defined as area (b) above.

For those few students who go further the emphasis shifts to written work — translations, simple compositions — and to the reading of literature. Here problems of unreliable texts, unobtainable books, inadequate dictionaries, etc., present themselves but many of them can be solved by the provision of xerox

copies, stencilled glossaries, etc. A possible area of expansion might be realized with increased teaching of non-Christian religions in the University, when some knowledge of the older language would be indispensable for the serious study of Sikhism : this would involve the preparation of specialized materials, but could be handled in the same way as is at present done for BA students of language and literature.

I personally would like to see a wider role for SOAS in catering for the needs of the English speaker who wants/needs to learn Panjabi. A hopeful scheme to send a group of local authority officials for a year's part-time course unfortunately came to nothing. At present, therefore, the needs of this group are met in other ways, more or less satisfactorily, by, e.g., evening classes run by a native speaker. Problems here are the unavailability of suitable material and the fact that there really do not exist any specialists in the teaching of Panjabi as a foreign language. I have tried to cater for the individual learner in my *Teach Yourself Punjabi*, which is at least cheap and very widely distributed. I understand that this is quite often used as a basis for class teaching, but it was not really designed for this task. More recently a much more suitable book has been published in India :[1] but this does not seem to be so widely known about, and anyway problems of availability and supply will arise.

For the third group, that of the immigrant communities themselves, the problems are different again. The main target group is children whose parents are anxious they should not lose touch with the traditional language and culture. Provision is made for Panjabi classes in some schools by local authorities with a large immigrant community, but as in the case of classes for English-speakers materials are a problem : inadequacy of teaching is probably more serious at the level of voluntary Sunday-school type classes held in Sikh temples, where, if some stories are to be believed, the teaching techniques may reflect the Indian scene but do not seem likely to instil much enthusiasm in the taught. Here obviously the production of better teaching material, more in conformity with what the children encounter in the English school context, is a first priority.

Basic linguistic research

For Panjabi there are good modern analytical grammars, but the situation is in other respects unsatisfactory. The last (and first) decent Panjabi-English dictionary was published in 1895, and although a reprint is available from India, it is obviously inadequate for modern usage. This is certainly a problem for English-speakers, few of whom are going to reach the stage of being able to use a monolingual dictionary. Nor are there the basic word-counts to enable grading of vocabulary to be rationally planned in elementary teaching material.

Script

The Gurmukhi script, official in India, is the obvious choice. The Roman script is not a satisfactory medium for Panjabi in my experience, even for those

[1] Bahri H. *Introduction to spoken Panjabi*

who seek basically only an oral knowledge, encouraging the failure to make phonetic distinctions found in Panjabi but not in English. I make a knowledge of Gurmukhi, which is not complex compared, say, with the Perso-Urdu script, a first priority for my students. There are of course problems in producing material in printed form in English and Gurmukhi. I think it would be worth overcoming these, either by the use of typescript for material for restricted distribution, or by paying the extra to have Panjabi set in Gurmukhi type.

What standard to teach?

Since it is pre-eminently the Sikhs here, as in South Asia, who identify with Panjabi, teaching should in the first instance be directed towards their standard, though it is best if as much common vocabulary as possible is included for use with immigrants from (ex-West) Pakistan, who are mostly Panjabi-speakers. A problem arises from the fact that the standard is based on the central dialect of Amritsar, whereas most Indian immigrants are from the Jullundur area, whose dialect differs from this, especially in phonological features. Since teachers of classes will probably be from this area themselves, any taped material for wide distribution should perhaps be in this dialect too.

Teaching for what end?

Perhaps the major difference between the more and the less commonly taught languages is that the teaching of the former is quite heavily directed towards examinations. Apart from our own degrees this is not the case with Panjabi. There are ofcourse the Civil Service examinations and those of institutions such as the Institute of Linguists. It is however unfortunate — and a matter of some resentment for leaders of immigrant communities — that Panjabi, more or less alone of the principal Indian languages is not generally available as a GCE subject.[1]

Needs

The production of materials for teaching Panjabi must be regarded as the most urgent priority. With the exception of the book referred to above material produced in India is unsuitable for use in this country, being generally related to an Indian, not an English student's needs, usually poorly printed and bound and often of very low quality. In so far as material for English speakers is concerned one would welcome the establishment of some kind of clearing house which might set up a register of the activities generally going on in the country in the teaching of immigrant languages. At present there is undoubtedly some unnecessary effort going into producing individually based introductions to the language. This is also true of the teaching of Panjabi to the children of immigrant parents, although in this area, as I have already said, there are moves towards trying to set up some more efficient production. Such efforts anyway are perhaps better organized among the immigrant communities themselves, although with facilities made available by local authorities, as happens also with, e.g., Italian. A central register, though, would of course be useful.

[1] The Joint Matriculation Board of the Northern Universities provides papers at 'O' level on request.

12

W Glyn Jones

Scandinavian languages at Newcastle-upon-Tyne

In the University of Newcastle-upon-Tyne, the teaching of Scandinavian languages at the moment encompasses the three principal languages of Danish, Norwegian and Swedish; Faroese figures in the work of a single research student, while there are plans to start a seminar in modern Icelandic. The teaching staff in the Scandinavian sector of the department consists of one professor, one senior lecturer (who also teaches German), four lecturers and three lektors. A language laboratory is available, with good collections of material for Swedish and Norwegian, but less satisfactory provision for Danish.

Published material for the teaching of the Scandanivian languages at an elementary stage leaves much to be desired, and under present conditions it is difficult to find publishers willing to take on works which will only in the long run provide a financial return. This is particularly noticeable in the field of Swedish, where one of our lecturers has produced an excellent and up-to-date grammar and has found several publishers who in principal would be willing to publish, but who are not prepared to make the necessary investment. Some kind of subvention for this kind of grammar is obviously called for.

One feature of the teaching of Scandinavian languages here is the requirement that honours students should spend a year in the country of their study, while general and subsidiary students should spend a month there. Due to the high cost of living in Scandinavia and an increasingly poor exchange rate, this system, excellent as it is, is in danger. The use of native lektors goes some way to help the situation, but is not a viable alternative in the long run. The only solution is the provision of better funds for students going to Scandinavia. At present the maximum provision is scarcely enough even for a minimal existence. The alternative of finding jobs for the students has its attractions, and might indeed, be preferable, but some central agency is required. This is partly provided for Swedish. There are numerous personal scholarly contacts between this Department and those in Scandinavia and on the Continent.

The course to be introduced from October 1975 consists of a year's intensive

language study in Newcastle, followed by a year abroad, followed again by two years in Newcastle. Provision is made for certain papers to be taken at the end of a student's third year, and among the large number of options available to fourth year students there is the possibility of writing a dissertation instead of a written paper.

Most fields of Scandinavian studies are touched on, from elementary to advanced language training, the history of the languages, the history of literature, a small amount of political history. In this latter field a lectureship was established but 'frozen' before it could be filled. When funds are available, we hope to move into a study of modern Scandinavian institutions as well as the present review of history.

13

J D Chinnery

Chinese at Edinburgh

All students admitted to the Faculty of Arts in Edinburgh University are deemed BA students (i.e. students reading for a three-year course leading to a general degree) unless and until they qualify for a four-year honours course at the end of their second year. Thus all students take more than one course in their first and second years. Students aiming for Chinese honours must take two outside subjects and students aiming for honours in another subject are entitled to take Chinese as one of their two outside subjects. First and second year Chinese are also available to BA students. Owing to the difficulty of the Chinese script there are two parallel courses at first year level, one in spoken Chinese and one in written Chinese. There are also parallel courses at second year level, one in modern Chinese and in classical Chinese.

This system has certain pedagogical disadvantages. Timetabling is difficult since so many courses must dovetail. Also students taking the beginning stages of the language have widely diverse aims. The system also has certain advantages. It is possible to attract students into Chinese studies within the university. This is particularly important when the subject is not taught at school. (The majority of students entering Chinese courses in Edinburgh have never touched China in their school curriculum). It also makes it possible to spread a knowledge of Chinese culture among the student body as a whole, rather than restricting it to Chinese honours students. The department runs a single year's course in Chinese Civilisation, the majority of students attending it not being Chinese language students.

Typical student numbers in any one year are :

1A	(Spoken Chinese)	20+
1B	(Written „)	10+
2A	(Modern „)	8+
2B	(Classical „)	8+
3	(Hons. „)	5
4	(Hons. „)	5
Chinese Civilisation		40+
Postgraduate		4

With a staff of four, the Chinese department's pre-student cost is actually lower than the average for the Faculty of Arts. Without the course in Chinese Civilisation this would not be the case. Thus in order to build up and maintain a department of Chinese, albeit a small one, in a large university which does not have a tradition of Chinese studies, it has been necessary to modify the initial conception of concentration on the honours curriculum and to adapt our courses to suit the needs of larger numbers of students.

We have devised our own materials for Chinese 1A and 1B and, up to a point, 2A and 2B also. These are not yet published and some difficulty is being experienced in this respect. We find the greatest need is for more up-to-date recorded or audio-visual material, and would welcome a scheme of interchange of such material between schools of Chinese.

All students of Chinese are frustrated by the lack of opportunity to spend time in China, or at least in a Chinese community. The present scheme of British Council scholarships only caters for a minority of students who would benefit from a period of study in China. Equally difficult is the problem for teachers of Chinese. At the research level the difficulty of gaining access to libraries is bad enough, but for language teachers lack of opportunity to refresh their knowledge of the spoken language is if anything even more serious. The obstacles are by no means all on the Chinese side. Teachers of Asian languages outside SOAS have no regular source of funds for travel on which to draw. In the case of Edinburgh some money is available through the Africa Centre, but this is grossly inadequate.

Future prospects

In the present economic crisis small departments are increasingly at the mercy of the academic big battalions, and will require some intensive care if they are not to succumb. Many of the languages taught in these departments are languages of the future. Some, like Chinese and Japanese, are languages of the present, though the educational world may not have woken up to this fact. They are mostly languages of the Third World, whose actions precipitated the present crisis and relations with whom will be a crucial factor in its solution. This makes it vital that departments responsible for teaching them should be assisted.

In Edinburgh we consider that in a modest way we have demonstrated the viability of teaching the Chinese language in a large university and integrating Chinese as a subject into the University's programme of studies. When the present economic troubles are over, we expect to be able to grow steadily. At the same time we are still relatively small and isolated and welcome any measures of co-ordination or assistance which this conference may help to bring about.

14

R P Sloss

The Chinese language project – a model?

It is difficult to examine Chinese using established computer techniques now regularly used with other languages. This is not, as might perhaps be supposed, because the language itself is inherently so different from others as to render it difficult of access by this form of analysis, but because of the much more elementary, and yet still intractable, problem of the initial in-putting of a non-alphabetic script. Indeed, the only way in which this can be so far reliably done is to go through the tedious process of converting each character into one of the 10,000 numerical codes of the Chinese Telegraphic Code system. It may be imagined how very slow, cumbersome and very prone to error this process is. Little wonder that even elementary computer tasks, such as frequency-counting and concordancing, have seldom been attempted, while more sophisticated computational analysis has not been done at all.

The analogy between this situation and that of initial language-learning is obvious. The more productive and intellectually stimulating parts of the study of Chinese can only be reached once the 'input' stage — that is, the achievement of minimum viable competence in the four basic language skills — has been successfully surmounted. Like computer input, this stage may be mundane and repetitive, but it is here that the problems are most acute and the quality of all later work depends upon it.

It was to investigate how best the initial acquisition of viable skill in basic modern Chinese might be achieved that the Chinese language project was established at Cambridge in September 1969. This project was jointly funded by the Nuffield Foundation, the Universities of China Committee and the Department of Education and Science. It was given a time allocation of four years and a task which, generally stated, was 'to develop techniques and materials for intensive self-instruction in the language laboratory using audio-lingual and audio-visual aids'. The need for such a study had arisen out of the failure of a much larger and more ambitious scheme to found an Inter-

Universities Chinese Language School.[1] Teachers had generally, if cautiously, welcomed the scheme but a certain disquiet had emerged about the precise form that the projected school might take. Nobody knew quite what to expect of such a school in terms of what the syllabus ought to contain, what standards might reasonably be expected in what period of time. There was also the problem of how to meld the products of such a school into the sometimes very different academic regimes and syllabuses of the various existing departments of Chinese. The arguments for and against the school had all tended to centre on the aspects of economy, rationalization, staffing and finance, while less attention had in proportion been paid to the pedagogical side of the matter. The Chinese language project came into being shortly after the University Grants Committee had finally been forced to 'refer the matter of the Inter-Universities Chinese Language School back to the Committee on Research and Development in Modern Languages for further study', the classic *coup de grace*. In the circumstances it seemed reasonable that the project should direct itself to producing a syllabus for the School and to filling out that syllabus with the necessary teaching materials. While the project was established to serve wider interests than this, that self-imposed task has provided a useful practical focus for its work.

Intensive language training is a specialized field. It is not simply non-intensive training concentrated in time. During and since the Second War, considerable experience in intensive language training has been built up both by the United States Defense Language Institute and, particularly in National Service days, by the British services. While it is possible to push the simile too far, and while no-one would suggest that a successful intensive course could, or should, be devoid of cultural and human interest, it may not be unreasonable to say that an efficient intensive-language school is not altogether unlike a modern science-based factory turning out a high-grade, repetitive product. Like the factory, the school requires a similar complex of skills — management, basic and applied research, on-going R & D, supervisory staff guiding high-grade operatives who are themselves technically supported. The titles given might well be different — administration, theoretical and applied linguistics cell, development and up-dating of materials, quality-control, senior teachers and language-teachers with laboratory and other technical back-up. The effect would be a thoroughly professional operation designed to produce from the widest possible spectrum of initial student aptitude, the highest possible level of practical skill in the shortest possible time. Nor is cost effectiveness the only criterion; in practice, such an approach, far from stultifying the interest of students, has been found to have quite the reverse effect because they can manifestly feel progress and so their motivation is constantly reinforced. A language school of the kind described is a precision instrument, and it is not cheap. In order to make it at all viable, an annual student through-put of at least 100 would be required. Anything less would not warrant the range and

[1] See *Committee on research and development in modern languages, first report*, HMSO, 1968, p. 23.

numbers of staff needed to make such a school an efficient operation.

There are three categories of students who require basic instruction in Chinese :
(a) those who will go on to regular undergraduate courses,
(b) existing scholars from other fields who wish to specialize on China,
(c) students from government, the services, the media, industry and commerce who require the language for practical, non academic, purposes. In sum their numbers comfortably exceed the annual minimum of 100, just mentioned. Certainly Arabic, and possibly one or two other languages would do so as well. In these cases a 'British-only' solution is possible. For the remainder, a 'European-wide' solution might well be sought. In the case of Chinese also, there is a great deal to be said for attempting to harmonize this work of basic instruction on a European basis.

But, irrespective of the eventual size of the 'catchment area', it is important to affirm that what is required in each case is a *language* school, not yet another centre with inbuilt ambitions to develop into an academic faculty. Certainly basic language teaching, if it is not to become so unpalatable as to be inffective, requires to be leavened by a fair amount of history, geography, economics and general cultural background, but care must be taken to ensure that the priority remains with the language, with these other elements feeding and enriching it. The tendency always is for these supporting elements to beguile the teachers away from their primary task. Language teaching is certainly not a lesser activity, as is perhaps sometimes implicitly felt, than academic work on a language base, but it is certainly a different kind of activity, with different objectives and priorities, and one obviously requiring teachers of a different sort. These differences in themselves constitute an argument for conducting the two kinds of activity in physically separate environments. The history of SOAS is an interesting example of a centre originally intended to serve the practical needs of government which gradually transformed itself into a full-blown academic institution.

A great deal of this is speculation. While it may well be true that it is more efficient and economical to concentrate the initial language teaching of those languages not normally taught in day-schools in centralized intensive language schools, the hard fact must be faced that the one attempt so far seriously made to do so, the Inter-Universities Chinese Language School, was unsuccessful. It is unlikely in the present financial climate that the proposal could be revived, even allowing, which is doubtful, the continued existence of the will to do so. But it is such an attractive and sensible solution to the problem that it is difficult not to continue to speculate about how such a scheme might be imagined to work out in practice. For instance, if it can be established that it would be more efficient and more economical to concentrate the basic-language teaching of one language in a single institution, might it perhaps be even more efficient and economical to go the whole hog and suggest a single, large multi-language school covering *all* the languages under our view? This would be rather like legislating into existence the Tower of Babel. Even were the creation of such an institution to become an even remotely possible political possibility, the

answer would be, 'Probably not'. 'Probably not' because, beyond a certain point, the arguments of economy of scale cease to hold in the face of growing bureaucratic complexity and the deadening effect of uniformity. An example such as the American DLI Monterey School (at one time teaching 27 languages, with an academic, exclusively native-speaking, staff of 450, an administrative staff of 150 and a student body in excess of 2,000) does not encourage confidence in the viability of such a large institution. But in a more limited way, the co-location of two or three minority languages in one school would offer significant advantages not only in the reduced costs of common-user administrative and technical services, but would also permit more extensive work in applied linguistics and teaching methodology. The co-location of two or three languages might prevent the tendency in the case of the single-language school for the teaching pattern to become, in the absence of standards of comparison, too inbred, stereotyped and complacent.

Turning now from these general issues to how the Chinese language project went about the task of investigating how best to produce a syllabus and materials for the hoped-for IUCLS. It is, of course, not claimed that this is the only way in which such an investigation might be conducted, nor is it recommended for any other language than Chinese. What however is claimed is that if a decision is taken to concentrate the basic teaching of a language in one institution, and if an intensive, full-time course is envisaged, it is quite essential that, as a first step, a small R & D study should be set up to go into the details of the syllabus and the production of materials. It is pointless to think that a composite of existing materials will do the job.

Before any attempt was made to produce either a new course or new teaching materials, the Chinese language project conducted an extensive survey of a large number of existing courses and materials. In the manner of a consumer survey an attempt was made to rate their effectiveness, list their strengths and identify their weaknesses. Textbooks from many countries and covering a long span of time (reaching back to the last century in some cases) were collected and scrutinized by people with quite wide backgrounds of practical teaching. While certain fundamental principles were laid down at the outset that might be said to have determined the subsequent linguistic 'stance' of the project, an open mind was kept among the conflicting claims of the various competing methodologies. Indeed, practical teaching must remain essentially eclectic in its approach. There is no reason why elements of the course should not employ, say, direct teaching methods while other elements might involve anything from grammar-translation through linguist-informant, via audio-lingual drilling to realien and simulated environment approaches. As intensive course should be constructed on pragmatic principles and should include any form of teaching strategy that has been found to work in practice. Thus, when the project came to examine textbooks it was with the intention of finding the good points in a 'Mandarin conversation made easy' produced by a single language teacher in, say, Kuala Lumpur and not necessarily being overly impressed by the systems-approach of the teams of course designers behind the, say, DeFrancis series of textbooks from America.

The next stage was to define 'minimum viable level of skill', as this applies to Chinese. Something much more specific than a general description like 'GCE 'A' level' is required. The content of minimum viable skill level will vary from language to language, but the common feature of all definitions should be that they are expressed in behavioural terms. That is to say, the definition should describe expected performance in each of the four skills.[1]

Having defined the skill levels, the objectives of an intensive course are then set. What must be done next is to establish time parameters. What would be a minimum reasonable time in which to reach those levels of skill? In the case of Chinese, the global time-allocation worked out as follows:

Daily contact-hours	5
Weekly programme	5 days
Term	10 weeks
Number of terms	4
Total length of course	1,000 hours

It is emphasised that this was an assessment in the case of Chinese. Other languages would produce different figures.

While it is unnecessary here to go into the details of the computations, it is perhaps worth pointing out that it is at this point that consideration has to be given to such matters as optimum class sizes, the need for cell and individual instruction, the weekly teaching loads of teachers ranging from those with no course-development or supervisory responsibilities up to those responsible for on-going course revision or the creation of new materials, or with major managerial or supervisory responsibilities, the issue of the balance between native-speaking and non-native-speaking teachers and the respective responsibilities, the scale of technical equipment required both in actual teaching and in technical support, and the nature and numbers of ancillary staff required for administrative, clerical and technical back-up. All this has to be gone into *before* there is any question of producing teaching materials. Some of the answers which the project came up with in the case of Chinese may be of passing interest. The optimum class size was set at ten students, with twelve as an outside maximum and eight as a minimum. The basic teaching load of the lowest-grade teacher was set at twenty hours per week, with proportionately less, down to ten hours per week, according to the course-development or supervisory responsibilities of the relevant grade. Provision was made in time-tabling for cell teaching to sub-classes of five students and for regular individual counselling hours for students each term. The ratio of native-speaking to non-native-speaking teachers was set at one to one; in fact, paired teams of this kind are particularly useful, each working over the material from his own cultural and intellectual standpoint. Technical equipment should permit each classroom to have audio-passive facilities and for sufficient laboratory provision

[1] See *Teaching languages to adults for special purposes*, CILT Reports and Papers 11, 1974, p. 66 for skill specifications (level one).

to ensure the equivalent of one hour per day per student in an audio-active laboratory. It is also essential that each student be provided with a personal cassette recorder and a full stock of cassettes covering all course material. Efficient reprography, tape-copying and visual-aids services (including the production of videotapes) are also essential. All this is akin to 'tooling-up' the precision factory spoken of earlier. To the objection that it is expensive in personnel and costly in equipment may be countered the argument that with sufficient through-put the unit-cost is much lower than the equivalent in non-intensive teaching dispersed over many locations and possibly under-employing staff and under-utilizing equipment in each. The overall cost-effectiveness would be very much higher.

By this time the project had established the general outlines of the teaching environment for which it had to cater. Starting with a global total of 1,000 hours it was now possible to apportion those hours among the various elements of the course. After careful consideration, this came out as follows :

(a) Basic language course ..... 400 hours
(2 hours per day x 40 weeks)

(b) Basic reading course ..... 150 hours
(Term I — 2 hours per week
Term II — 3 hours per week
Terms III/IV — 5 hours per week)

(c) Direct-method aural/oral teaching ..... 200 hours
(1 hour per day, to include comprehension, unstructured and structured conversation and simulated situation work)

(d) Course on Chinese pronunciation ..... 80 hours
(contains both theoretical and practical elements : 4 hours per week in Terms I and II only)

(e) Course on the Chinese writing system ..... 20 hours
(Term I only : 2 hours per week)

(f) Background studies ..... 80 hours
(Includes term courses on geography, history, literature and art provided *in English* by staff-members and occasional lecturers — 2 hours per week throughout. Films, concerts, art-exhibitions included in this allocation)

(g) Testing ..... 40 hours
(Includes weekly tests, term examination and the final qualifying examination)

(h) Individual counselling ..... 30 hours
(average of 8 hours per term)

This is the point at which the work of building a course can actually begin. The dimensions of the task are clear, if somewhat daunting. Work was at once begun on clothing this skeleton plan with actual teaching materials. First priority was given to the creation of a 40-lesson (i.e. one lesson per week) basic language course. A parallel, but separate, graded reading course, divided into four stages (one for each term), was written. The attempt was made to maintain the intrinsic interest in all the materials by ensuring that they taught as much about China as they did about the language. A course on Chinese pronunciation was commissioned and completed, as was a parallel course on the Chinese writing system. Wherever possible, all materials were accompanied by tape-recordings and, where appropriate, by language laboratory drills.

Concurrently with this other work, a considerable quantity of realien and other materials was collected to support the direct-method teaching component of the course. These materials, whether from the basic course, the reading course, or from the other components, were deliberately constructed so as to be free-standing. While it was felt that they would function best when put together in the 1,000-hour course, they were deliberately conceived so as to be usable in teaching situations other than that course. In view of the at best problematical future of the IUCLS, it would have been wasteful to have done otherwise.

As the development of teaching materials progressed, and at times when they were still in a rudimentary state, their effectiveness was evaluated in classroom test with undergraduates who happened to be following the regular under-graduate course at Cambridge at the time. Experience produced changes in the materials and they tended to pass through 'generations' of development.

Reprography costs, always an important element in the production of language teaching materials, were kept low by using an IBM 'Golfball' typewriter to produce good, clean master-sheets, with Chinese characters being inserted in manuscript on the typescript. The copy was subsequently sent to Durham to be cheaply and well produced by photo-lithography. The project staff did their own collating and binding. The eventual products are, if not up to professional standard, at least not amateurish looking (something which would have ruined the credibility of the whole operation in the eyes of students), and in some cases are remarkably attractive considering the very low outlay involved.

Once sufficient experience had been gained with the prototype materials to warrant the experiment, it was decided to mount a genuine 1,000-hour course. This course has in fact been run at Cambridge on two occasions — 1972/73 and 1973/74 — and it is hoped to run it again in 1975/76. There were eight students on each occasion, drawn from the Diplomatic Service, the Services, post-graduates from other fields and from external sources, such as the Hong Kong Government, the Swiss, Kuwait and Nigerian Governments, *The New York Times*, Rolls Royce and BOAC. These were extremely well motivated students of high calibre, so it is not surprising that their progress through the course was smooth and rapid. They have all gone on to develop their Chinese to higher levels, in many cases in China itself. However, although these were to some extent exceptional students, enough was learnt from these pilot trials

to confirm that the project had generally been working along the right lines. The skill levels set were readily attainable in the time.

The staff of the Chinese language project has at no time exceeded five (and this total included a clerical/administrative assistant) while for most of the time it has operated with four. By being located in the Faculty of Oriental Studies in the University, the project has been fortunate in being able to seek the advice and opinions of colleagues beyond its own rather narrow circle. At no time has any member of the staff been divorced from the demands of day-to-day teaching, an important point if a sound practical perspective is to be maintained. In retrospect, it still seems that the best way to lay down the principles and practice of a basic language course is to set up a small R & D unit, made up, like the project has been, of experienced practising teachers, and to set them to work towards a clearly defined objective within the constraints of a limited budget and a predetermined time scale. The approach is perhaps worthy of emulation.

Appendix 1: Sources of further information

A series of *Language and culture guides* is available from CILT which contain extended information about the following languages and their teaching in Britain :

1. Arabic
2. Bulgarian
3. Celtic languages (Irish, Gaelic, Welsh)
4. Czech Slovak
5. Chinese
6. Dutch Afrikaans
7. Danish
8. Finnish
9. Hungarian
10. Indian languages (Bengali, Gujarati, Panjabi, Hindi, Urdu)
11. Japanese
12. Modern Greek
13. Norwegian
14. Polish
15. Portuguese
16. Serbo-Croat
17. Swedish
18. Turkish
19. Swahili

Each guide (except Bulgarian, Danish and Hungarian) has five sections :

A. Institutions — listing those offering full-time courses and able to mount special courses on demand

B. Courses — briefly describing the content and nature of the courses provided

C. Research — listing and describing recent and current research projects in Britain relating to the language

D. Materials — a select list of available teaching materials published since 1951. Entries are coded according to use and application.

E. Sources of further information — listing specialist institutions, examining bodies, libraries, booksellers and organisations etc. concerned with the particular language

Appendix 2: Conference participants

Name	*Institution*
Professor M E Abou-Hindia	Polytechnic of Central London
Dr M N Bainbridge	School of Oriental and African Studies, University of London
Dr M H Bakalla	University of Riyadh, Saudi Arabia
Miss E A Belevics	Centre for Information on Language Teaching and Research
Major R Bradley	Army School of Languages, Beaconsfield
Mrs H Branch	School of Slavonic and East European Studies, University of London
H D Bryan	Polytechnic of Central London
R E Burnhams	Diplomatic Service Language Centre
Miss C T Chen	Ealing Technical College
Dr J D Chinnery	University of Edinburgh
P Collin	Educational Publishers' Council
A C W Crane	ELB Languages Group Ltd
Miss R Davidson	Educational Publishers' Council
A Dobson	The Polytechnic, Wolverhampton
Professor C J Dunn	School of Oriental and African Studies, University of London
Mrs J D Geach	Centre for Information on Language Teaching and Research
A Giovanazzi, HMI	Scottish Education Department
A Haque	Bradford College
Professor L P Harvey (Co-Chairman)	King's College, University of London
G Healey	University of Sheffield
Professor E J A Henderson (Co-Chairman)	School of Oriental and African Studies, University of London
M J de K Holman	University of Leeds
G D Humphreys	University of Leeds
Miss S Innes	BBC
C V James	Centre for Information on Language Teaching and Research
S B Jolly	Polytechnic of Central London
Professor W G Jones	University of Newcastle-upon-Tyne
Dr G L Lewis	University of Oxford
Miss H N Lunt	Centre for Information on Language Teaching and Research
A McGregor	British Library

Dr P A Mackridge	King's College, University of London
Dr D J Matthews	School of Oriental and African Studies, University of London
G M Matthews	Centre for Information on Language Teaching and Research
Dr Joan E M Maw	School of Oriental and African Studies, University of London
Dr B W Mazur	School of Slavonic and East European Studies, University of London
Dr G D Morley	Centre for Information on Language Teaching and Research
Professor P Newmark	Polytechnic of Central London
J D Norton	University of Durham
G E Perren	Centre for Information on Language Teaching and Research
Miss C Picken	Shell International Petroleum Co. Ltd., London
Dr R G Popperwell	University of Cambridge
Miss J Price	Centre for Information on Language Teaching and Research
Dr R B Pynsent	School of Slavonic and East European Studies, University of London
Mrs A M Ridler	Council for National Academic Awards
Mrs M Roberts (Conference Secretary)	Centre for Information on Language Teaching and Research
Miss I Scobbie	University of Aberdeen
D Short	School of Slavonic and East European Studies, University of London
Mrs E Smith	Polytechnic of Central London
R P Sloss	University of Cambridge
J L M Trim	University of Cambridge
M K Verma	University of York
M R Wigram, HMI	Department of Education and Science

OTHER PUBLICATIONS

Published by and obtainable from CILT

CILT Reports and Papers series, including *A survey of English courses for immigrant teachers* (price : 60p); *Teaching modern languages across the ability range* (65p); *Modern languages and European studies* (50p); *The space between: English and foreign languages at school* (80p); *Teaching languages to adults for special purposes* (£1.50).

Survey of curricula and performance in modern languages, 1971-72, by C Vaughan James and Sonia Rouve. Price : £3.50.

Survey of research and materials development in vocational uses of English, French and German, 1974, Report. Price £1.50.

Language and Culture Guides (described on page 69). Price 25p each.

Teaching Materials Lists for French, German, Italian, Russian and Spanish — annotated bibliographies of currently available material, each language produced in sections (various prices).

CILT also produces *Selected Reading Lists* (short introductory bibliographies for language teachers) and *Information Guides* on a variety of topics (free).

A full list of publications is available from CILT, 20 Carlton House Terrace, London SW1Y 5AP.

Published by Cambridge University Press

A language-teaching bibliography, compiled jointly by CILT and the English-Teaching Information Centre (ETIC) of the British Council. 2nd edn., 1972. Price : £3.60. Orders should be sent to booksellers.

Language teaching and linguistics: abstracts, compiled jointly by ETIC and CILT. Quarterly journal providing summaries of relevant articles from nearly 400 British and foreign periodicals. Subscription £6.00 per annum, single numbers £2.00 each. Orders and subscriptions to CUP, P.O. Box 92, London NW1 2DB, or through booksellers or newsagents.

Published by Longman

Language and language teaching: current research in Britain, 1971-72 Price : £3.95. 1972-75 volume to be published 1976. Orders should be sent to booksellers.